

Baseline Study on the Status of Women in the New Sudan:

*Report for Mundri and Yei Counties, Western Equatoria,
Southern Sudan*



Directed by:

Anne Itto

**Sudan People's Liberation Movement's Natural Resources Management and Utilization Committee
and USAID's Strategic Analysis and Capacity Building Activity**

Prepared by:

Tumushabe Joseph

Isis-WICCE

July 2004

Funded by USAID through the Strategic Analysis and Capacity Building Activity

Implemented under the USDA PASA with USAID REDSO

Contract Number: AOT-R-00-95-0085

Edited by Amiee Henderson, Shannon Fraser, and Ka Vang



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Foreword

The livelihood, status, and welfare of women in South Sudan have long rendered an in-depth analysis, both on quantitative and qualitative levels. As the roles and responsibilities of women in their homes and communities have been in a state of flux and adaptation during the period of civil war, the ensuing prospects for peace in the South will require broad transformations in society at large, with undeniable attention paid to the contributions and activism that women will provide to the development of their communities. However, the communities themselves need to address the legal and institutional arenas through which women's activities can be meaningful, fruitful, and effective. Consequently, the following study was undertaken to highlight the past and current concerns of women so as to provide direction and guidance in the formation of new policies that will engage women equally in southern Sudanese society.

This study is unprecedented in that it was undertaken by and for the people of South Sudan. The design, planning, and implementation of the study, as well as the conclusions drawn in this document, were cultivated by the southern Sudanese themselves. The information provided herein will further be incorporated into local communities of South Sudan: a series of workshops will be held in local towns to further draw attention to the topics raised in this report. The aim of these workshops will be to develop a framework for new laws and institutions that will restructure post-war South Sudan, with emphasis on the contributions that women provide to all aspects of society.

Funding for this study was provided by USAID, through the Strategic Analysis and Capacity Building Activity under the Sudan Transitional Assistance for Rehabilitation (STAR) program. This study was carried out in coordination with the USDA field office in Nairobi, Kenya.

Brian D'Silva

USAID-Sudan Task Force

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We would like to acknowledge and express our sincere thanks to everyone who contributed to the success of this comprehensive baseline study, which, for the first time, sheds light on the social, economic, and political status of women in South Sudan. Our first thanks goes to Birgitta Grosskinsky and Charity Buga of USDA/University of Missouri for the provision of services concerning documentation and travel arrangements. We would also like to thank USAID, particularly Dr. Brian D'Silva, for financial assistance and insight, without which this project would not have been pos-

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Glossary of Acronyms and Abbreviations

AWID	Association for Women's Rights in Development
CBO	Community Based Organization
PDF	Popular Defense Front
PHCC	Primary Health Care Centers
PHCU	Primary Health Care Units
USAID	U.S. Agency for International Development
SACB	Strategic Analysis and Capacity Building Activity
SDA	Seven Day Adventist
SPLM	Sudan People's Liberation Movement
SPSS	Statistical Package for Social Scientists
SWOL	Strengths, Weaknesses, Opportunities, and Limitations
UNFA	Ugandan National Farmers' Association
USh	Ugandan Shilling
UWESO	Ugandan Women's Effort to Save Orphans
WNR	Women and Natural Resources Working Group

Executive Summary

INTRODUCTION

In all societies certain tasks and patterns of behavior have been ascribed to either men or women. In nearly all developing societies, women's roles in peace time can broadly be grouped into seven categories: maternal, occupational, conjugal, domestic, kin, community, and individual (Oppong and Abu, 1987). At the community level, women are expected to provide services during ceremonies and celebrations and offer their advice or opinions quietly through male members of the household.

During peace time, the roles of men include participation in settling family disputes, observing marriages, contributing to food and drinks at ceremonies, and guaranteeing community security. Men also are expected to participate in political decisions at the local and national levels.

However, in situations of armed conflict, women are forced to perform roles beyond those traditionally assigned to them. These include:

- (a) Providing for the security of the household,
- (b) Securing shelter,
- (c) Making decisions and managing affairs,
- (d) Participating in combat and noncombat war activities,
- (e) Providing the fighting forces with food, and
- (f) Ensuring comfort for the fighters.

In South Sudan, the situation of women has been exacerbated by the impact of civil and ethnic conflicts for two decades. To perform their wartime tasks, women in South Sudan are forced to operate in an environment that is often hostile and broad in scope. There has been

destruction of basic physical infrastructure (such as buildings, roads and capital equipment), loss of lives and property, and a breakdown of social structures and institutions (leading to the breakdown of law and order, poor social services, deterioration of social norms and value systems). In addition, massive population displacement has occurred.

Vulnerable members of the community (women, children, as well as the disabled, elderly, and sick) are the most affected by this conflict. In the absence of male family members during war times, women often become heads of their households. They take on the role of food producer and provider of security for the household, in addition to their traditional reproductive and productive roles. These new roles place additional demands on women's time and resources, making it very difficult for women to participate effectively in social, economic, and political issues that affect their lives.

Discrimination of women is also sustained through power structures in cultural, private, and public spheres, resulting in economic, social, and political marginalization.

The following baseline study explains the roles and responsibilities of women and men in New Sudan.¹ It specifically attempts to address the resources needed in society to highlight the social contributions of men and women, the investment of incomes among men and women, the current legal status of women and men in both customary and statutory laws, and the impact of development strategies and policies in the context of global policies on equality and rights of women. The latter issue is very critical to effectively address the

¹ Throughout this document, the term New Sudan is used interchangeably with South Sudan to indicate the geographical and political region in the southern part of the country where an independent and self-autonomous government will be established following a peace agreement.

situation of women in New Sudan, as many local policies have been formulated on the basis of global policies on rights, paying little attention to the uniqueness of the situation in New Sudan.

Moreover, this study will examine the historical, cultural, and traditional contexts and factors that have constrained women's emancipation in New Sudan. By assessing the impact of traditional, social, and political programs on the contemporary, socio-economic, and political lives of women in New Sudan, two results will be achieved: 1) the key constraints to women's full participation and access to social, economic, and political resources will be identified, and 2) women's active participation will be encouraged by establishing a foundation for a just, democratic, and prosperous Sudan.

OBJECTIVES OF THIS STUDY

Strategic Objectives

1. Identify factors affecting women's effective participation in socio-cultural, economic, and political affairs and activities at household, community and public levels.

Specific Objectives

1. Train and prepare a team of women and men for the baseline study and future collection of social, economic, and political data.
2. Critically assess differentials concerning participation in socio-cultural, economic, and political affairs and activities at household, community and public levels.
3. Identify the key constraints to full participation of women in society and access to social, economic and political resources.
4. Assess the existing policies and programs of government and development partners concerning women's access and full participation in activities affecting their families, communities, natural resource utilization, and conservation.

EXPECTED RESULTS OF THIS STUDY

1. Provide a report on the baseline study results.
2. Convene stakeholders' workshops in New Sudan to disseminate the results of this baseline study.
3. Provide a framework for establishing a national database containing major factors affecting women's participation in social, economic and political issues.

Major Findings

This baseline study pinpoints factors affecting women's control and ownership of social, economic, and political resources at the household, community and national levels. The study covered Mundri and Yei Counties in Western Equatoria. Subsequent studies will be conducted in all five regions of New Sudan. The specific objectives that the study aims to achieve are to:

1. Critically assess differentials in participation of women and men in socio-cultural, economic and political affairs and activities at the household, community, and public levels;
2. Identify key constraints to women's full participation in and access to socio-cultural, economic and political affairs and activities at the household, community, and public levels;
3. Develop a clear understanding of how existing policies and programs of government and development groups impact women's access and control of resources at the household, community and national levels.

DEMOGRAPHIC CHARACTERISTICS OF THE POPULATION IN MUNDRI AND YEI COUNTIES

In the survey of Mundri and Yei Counties, more women than men were under the age of 40. The average age of female participants was 35, whereas the average age of men was 42. This statistic implies that most men are married to younger women.

More men than women were under age 20. However, there were more women than men who were in the 20 to 40 age group. For those over age 40, there was high variance in terms of age range and gender.

The average household in the two counties of Mundri and Yei comprised of seven persons. Of the 600 house-

holds surveyed, nearly one-fifth were headed by women. Among these female-headed households, the average size was 6.3 persons, while in male-headed households the average size was 7.2 persons.

Overall there were more married men (80%) than women among the respondents in the two counties combined. However, in Yei the proportion of married women was significantly higher (82%) than in Mundri (62%). More women lived in dissolved unions (separated, divorced or widowed) in Mundri (28%) than in Yei (18%).

Mortality

In Mundri, 82% of the households had lost a member since 1990, while in Yei 70% of the households reported having lost a member. On average Mundri lost 3.6 persons per household while Yei averaged 2.8 losses per household.

Over a 12-year period, records indicate that 56% of all deceased people in both Mundri and Yei were males. In Mundri, 12% of the males and 2% of the females were killed. In Yei, those killed accounted for 13% of all male deaths and 4% of all female deaths.

In Mundri, those aged 35 and older comprised 51% of all deaths. In Yei, the same age group comprised of 30% of all deaths.

Fertility Situation

Nine percent of the women in Yei and 7% of the women in Mundri reported that they were pregnant at the time of the study. Of the 264 female respondents who were between the ages of 14 and 49 years and were not pregnant, 99 reported that they wanted to have a child in the next two years, while 59 women were not sure.

Among the females who were 14 to 49 years old and were not pregnant, 19% reported using contraception. The majority (88%) were using traditional methods of contraception such as breast-feeding, rhythm, natural

or abstinence. Abstinence was the most common form of birth control.

Birth Supervision and Immunization

Twenty-nine percent of the births had been supervised by a care provider.

Eighty-seven percent of children under five had received at least one immunization.

Gynecological Problems

Twenty-five percent of all respondents in Yei and 32% in Mundri have reported experiencing a pregnancy-related problem. Syphilis was reported as the most common gynecological problem, while miscarriages, abdominal pains, bleeding, pregnancy and child delivery difficulties, headaches, lack of milk, paralysis, pelvic pains, fibroids, hernia and swollen feet were also reported.

Access to Gynecological Services

Seventy-nine percent of women in Mundri and 74% of women in Yei reported gynecological problems. Hospitals provided the majority of health services for pregnancy-related cases. Primary Health Care Units (PHCU) and Primary Health Care Centers (PHCC) did not attract even half the potential clients due to the poor quality of services offered.

Fifty-six percent of women in Mundri and 40% of women in Yei who had experienced gynecological problems reported that they still had these problems at the time of the survey. Those who sought medical care reported a lack of drugs, high cost of service, and lack of transportation as the leading constraints to obtaining health care.

Maternal Mortality

One-third of all respondents in both Mundri and Yei had relatives who had died during pregnancy or childbirth in the five years preceding the survey. Of the pregnancy and childbirth-related deaths reported, 35 deaths occurred in Mundri and 53 in Yei.

Access to Health Services

Hospitals, laboratories and family planning services are the most remote health facilities in Mundri and Yei. In Mundri, the average distance to the nearest hospital was 24 miles, the nearest PHCU was 3.7 miles away, and the nearest PHCC and PHCC with maternity services were 10.5 and 19 miles, respectively. In Yei, the nearest hospital was 33 miles, while laboratory services were 27 miles away.

In both Mundri and Yei, the nearest doctor was over 25 miles away. It took a patient approximately 23 miles in Yei and 16 miles in Mundri to find a qualified nurse. Overall, Mundri was in a better position than Yei in terms of locating health personnel. However, traditional healers and traditional birth attendees were the most common health providers in both Mundri and Yei Counties.

One-third of the respondents in Mundri and over 40% in Yei relied on traditional healers. Eighty-seven percent of those in Mundri and 75% in Yei who sought medical services from traditional healers indicated that their ailment was cured. The majority of traditional healers were paid in cash, though in-kind payment in installments was also practiced.

SOCIAL INDICATORS AND CONSTRAINTS

Occupation

Two-thirds of all respondents in Yei and Mundri worked in agriculture, while 17%, 6%, 4%, and 5% were professionals, workers, clergy, and house workers, respectively. In both Mundri and Yei the proportion of women involved in agriculture was higher than the proportion of men. Over 70% of the women and 50% of the men in both Yei and Mundri reported that their occupation was agriculture-related.

Sources of Income

The main source of income in Mundri and Yei came from agriculture, including incomes from both crop and livestock. Agriculture comprises over one-third of the total income in both counties. Trade also plays a very important role: 27% of the people in both Mundri and Yei are engaged in trade.

Wealth Possessions

To determine household wealth status, respondents were asked to indicate which of the following household assets they own: radio, cassette players, bicycles, cart, ploughs, oxen, cows, hoes, mattress, motorcycles, car tractor, shop, kiosk, or restaurant/bar. Not a single household owns a car, tractor, plough or trained oxen in either Yei or Mundri. However, on average, the percentage of households that reported having a radio, cassette player, bicycle, or sponge mattress were significantly higher in Yei than in Mundri.

Water and Sanitation

In general most of the households in the region rely on water from unsafe sources (shallow wells, rivers/streams, dams, ponds, swamps or surface water). In Mundri, almost 95% of the households were dependent on an unsafe source of water: thus, only 5% of the households in Mundri and 29% of the households in Yei had protected water sources (boreholes and protected springs).

Sanitation in the region is very poor. Only 47% of the households in Mundri and 59% of the households in Yei have any form of toilet coverage. Of these, 43% of the households in Mundri and 51% of the households in Yei have their own pit latrines, leaving 4% of Mundri households and 8% of Yei households relying on communal pit latrines.

Source of Light and Fuel

Most of the households in the region (63% in Mundri and 51% in Yei) have no lighting at night. Firewood is the main source of lighting for the few households that are lit at night. This same population depends almost wholly on wood fuel for cooking.

Housing

Most houses in the two counties have mud, wood, wattle (mud and straw) walls, and thatched grass roofs. There is, however, a recent proliferation of unbaked brick homes, especially in Yei County.

Education

In general, education levels for both men and women in Mundri and Yei are poor. Fewer than two-thirds of the respondents had attended school. Forty-three percent had attained some primary education. There were significant gender differentials in education attainment in both counties. In Mundri, 47% of the women had been to school, while 76% of their male counterparts had some education. Likewise, in Yei, only 58% of the female respondents had been to school, while 78% of the men had some schooling.

An analysis of the household membership characteristics indicated that in Mundri 44% of the males and nearly 50% of all the females younger than 20 did not have any formal education. Among those older than 20, 23% of the males and 63% of the females did not have any formal education.

Education of Those Under 15 Years of Age

Eighty percent of Mundri respondents and 75% of respondents in Yei indicated that they had children of school age (6 to 15-years-old). In Mundri 66% of the male children were in school, compared to 60% of their female counterparts. In Yei 84% of the male children were in school, compared to 73% of the females.

For the girls in Mundri, the leading causes for dropping out of school or failing to enroll were: the distance from school (36%), lack of money for fees (14%), the need for them to work on the farm (10%), and lack of security (7%). For the Mundri male children, the leading causes for dropping out of school or failing to enroll were: the distance from the school (41%), ill health (11%), and lack of money for tuition (9%).

For the male children in Yei, the reasons for school absence include the distance from school (43%), lack of money for fees (19%), lack of interest (10%), and lack of security (8%). Among the girls in Yei, distance from

schools (34%), lack of money for fees (18%) and lack of interest (9%) were the main obstacles for school enrollment and continuation of education.

Access to Education Services

The distance to the nearest education facility has strong implications for school attendance and can have important implications concerning gender. The average estimated distance to the nearest kindergarten was 4.2 miles in Mundri and 2.6 miles in Yei. In Mundri, 31% of the households were within one mile of the nearest kindergarten, while in Yei 20% of respondents were within a one mile radius of a kindergarten.

Fifteen percent of the households in Mundri and 14% of the households in Yei were within three miles of the nearest primary school.

In Mundri the average distance to the nearest secondary school was 21.3 miles, while in Yei the average distance was 14.2 miles. While for boys a commuting distance of about seven miles is feasible and would permit about 40% of the households in Mundri and about 45% of the households in Yei to access secondary education, for the girls such a distance would make it difficult to attend school.

Religion and Ethnicity

In the two counties where this study was conducted, on average 70% of the respondents belonged to the Episcopal Church. Twenty percent of the respondents were Catholics, 8% were Pentecostals and 3% were Presbyterian, Seven Day Adventists (SDA) and Lutherans, combined.

Access to Community Centers

Community centers serve as centers of community transformation. They act as meeting places, adult education facilities, literacy centers, community information centers, and locations for mass mobile immunization programs. Respondents reported that community centers are at an average distance of three miles in Yei and four miles in Mundri, payam administration offices are at an average of six miles in Yei and 12 miles in Mundri, and local courts are at an average distance of four miles in Yei and six miles in Mundri.

The distances from households to community and administrative centers are far, especially for those households and communities located outside the average distance. The greater the distance, the less likely the women would attend events at community centers.

Access to Commercial Centers

Commercial service points are important in transforming rural economies from subsistence to monetary levels. They form the main outlets for the agrarian production and they provide the first points of access for farming inputs and basic needs of households.

As the average distance to the nearest grinding mill is 18 miles in Mundri and 10 miles in Yei, the opportunity cost of using these mills is great.

Similarly, the average distance to the nearest market for animals in Mundri is 20 miles, which hinders animal sales. In Yei, the average distance is six miles.

Poor road conditions and transportation systems are obstacles in southern Sudan. Only 47% of the population in the two counties had access to motorized transport. Among these, the households in Yei, which average a distance of eight miles to the nearest source of motorized transport, have relatively easier access to roads and motorized transport than in Mundri where the average distance is 21 miles.

There are no public services, such as electricity, postal service, radio systems or communication services in Yei and Mundri Counties. Respondents reported that the average travel distance required to gain access to a radio or postal service was 17 miles in Mundri and 10 miles in Yei.

WOMEN'S STATUS

Although the most important economic activity in both Mundri (53%) and Yei (42%) was agriculture-related, 29% of the women in Yei and 16% of the women in Mundri were reportedly involved in brewing and selling beer as a source of income.

The proportion of women involved in petty trade was 18% in Mundri and 14% in Yei.

In Mundri 60% of the women reported an average income of 43,901 Ugandan Shillings (US\$). Overall in Mundri 15% of the women who reported obtaining income from economic activities saved an average amount of 28,770 US\$ over a one-year period. In Mundri the purchase of food topped the list of household expenditures, followed by transport, social activities, and education of children. In Yei, the education of children was the primary household expenditure.

The proportion of men participating in domestic and household chores is very low. Only 8% of the men reported they put any time into the care for the children, sick, or elderly and 9% helped with the preparation of food, as opposed to 51% and 56% of the women who reported performing these two tasks, respectively. In fact the study showed that the proportion of women who participated in all household activities was higher than that of the men, with the exception of trade, employment outside the home, and home repairs.

Furthermore, there is a wide variation between men and women in regard to the way they spend their time. While, on average, women spend over 10.5 hours a day on domestic duties and subsistence/cash production, men spend on average nine hours on these tasks.

Ownership and Control of Farm Produce

There are 65 households that own cattle in Mundri and 29 in Yei. Goats are more commonly owned in both counties. On average, there are nine goats per household in Mundri and eight goats per household in Yei. Chicken ownership is more common in Mundri (12 chickens per household) than in Yei (eight chickens per household). Poultry was the most frequently sold animal, followed by goats and then cattle.

Ninety-five percent of the households in Mundri produced sorghum. Other frequently produced crops include maize, cassava, beans, and fruits. In Yei the most frequently produced crops were cassava, maize, sesame, millet and fruits. Generally, more households in Mundri than in Yei sell farm produce.

Gender and Participation

More women than men were involved with domestic chores (fetching water and firewood, preparing food, caring for children, and attending to other domestic chores). Even in the trade sector, women in New Sudan have a very strong participation rate (64%), spending on average nine hours on trade-related work each day.

Gender Attitudes and Practices

Both male and female respondents cite education of sons and daughters as important. While on the one hand, one-third of both male and female respondents stated that boys are more intelligent than girls, 15% of men and 17% of women hold the view that girls are more intelligent than boys. While 63% of the fathers believe that girls do more work than boys, among the mothers this view rose to 71%. Both men and women believe that boys do more farm work than girls. Financial contributions are expected more of boys than of girls.

Gender Related Abuses

Mundri has a relatively higher rate of abuse against women and girls than in Yei. Eight percent of the female respondents in Mundri and 4% in Yei experienced abuse. The proportion of daughters and female relatives raped was even higher, with 8% in Mundri and 7% in Yei. As the stigma against admitting to being raped is great, these numbers may be deceptively low.

Cases of sexual child abuse are also high, especially in Yei where incidents of defilement and molestation run as high as 15%. Other cases of abuse (such as abduction of children by their own fathers or imprisonment of wives as a form of disciplinary action) have also been on the rise.

There is also a degree of forced marriage in both counties, though the practice is much more common in Yei than in Mundri.

Approximately 45% of the men in Mundri and Yei stated that they would take no action in the event of a conflict over land. Thirty-six percent of the women in Mundri and 30% of the women in Yei would take no action in the event of land conflict.

Widow inheritance was reported by 21% of the women in Mundri and 15% of the women in Yei. This practice appears to be widespread in the region and affects up to one-fifth of the population. Similarly, adultery has been on the rise. Five percent and 11% of the respondents in Mundri and Yei, respectively, knew of cases of adultery.

Property takeovers from widows were fairly rampant, with 10% of the respondents in Mundri and 12% in Yei reporting awareness of such cases. Over 50% of respondents in Yei and Mundri reported that they would do nothing about this if it happened to them.

USES OF NATURAL RESOURCES AND FOOD SECURITY

Most of the land in Yei and Mundri is managed under traditional fallow or swift cultivation systems. The average amount of land managed by a household is 9.7 feddans in Mundri, while in Yei households manage five feddans of land. In both Mundri and Yei the land under food crop cultivation was greater than land under cash crop cultivation.

In both Mundri and Yei access to all farming inputs (i.e., fertilizers, manure, credit services) that are not naturally found on the farm is very inadequate, with the exception of extension services. Twenty-nine percent of households in Mundri and 27% in Yei reported that they could access extension services.

Very few households in either Mundri or Yei use any form of fertilizer. Farming inputs are all inadequate.

Household Uses of Other Natural Resources

Both natural and plantation forests in Mundri and Yei provide households with a variety of products: herbs, firewood, gums, dyes, game meat, wild fruits, honey, grass, fibers, timber and poles. There were gender-specific differences in the uses of natural products. Males reported scavenging the forests for game meat, sticks,

and honey, while females collected firewood and wild fruits from the forests.

More males than females reported that there had been some tree planting in their households in the 10 years prior to the study in both Mundri and Yei. Tree planting is seen as a responsibility of men in both counties. Barriers to tree planting in both Mundri and Yei include lack of seeds and tools and displacement due to the war.

Eighty-six percent of the respondents in Mundri and 74% in Yei reported that they were able to obtain fish. In Mundri more than 55% of the households source fish from the river, while in Yei 60% of the households purchase their fish from the market. Among those accessing fish, the following were reported as the leading obstacles in obtaining fish: lack of hooks and fishing nets, lack of money, snakes, and distance from the river. While men frequently reported lack of fishing gear as a key problem, women in both Mundri (30%) and Yei (43%) reported lack of money as the main obstacle to a household's source of fish.

Food Shortages

The leading causes of food shortages in the two counties were bad weather, lack of seeds, inadequate labor, pests and diseases, and a lack of farming tools. In Mundri, looting and burning of houses and food stores by combatants were also of great concern.

Gender Equity in Government and NGO Programming

Contrary to the resolutions of the 1994 Conventions which recognized the marginalization of Sudanese women and offered affirmative action, women in Sudan remain seriously marginalized. Government institutions and NGOs operating in the two counties lack capacity as well as commitment to design and implement equitable and sustainable emergency and rehabilitation programs that would take into account the needs of the vulnerable and disadvantaged social groups, such as women.

1. Background

1.1 WOMEN, SOCIO-ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENT, AND POLITICS

Women are productive members of their households and communities. However, in New Sudan, as is the case in many African countries, their actual contribution has been obscured as most of their efforts and time are spent on performing unpaid tasks, e.g., child bearing, caring for children, husbands, the sick and elderly, and maintaining peace and harmony in the household and the community at large. This valueless contribution to the social and economic welfare of their households is often regarded as “mere domestic chores.”

To better understand and appreciate men and women’s roles and contributions at household and community levels, communities in New Sudan can be placed in one of two groups: communities whose livelihoods depend mainly on crop agriculture, and communities whose livelihoods depend primarily on livestock. It is, however, very important to note that the above distinction is not apparent as many communities grow crops as well as keep cattle while others depend more on fishing. In all these communities, whether the source of livelihood results from farming, livestock, or a little bit of both, women and men have very distinct roles. It is, therefore, of great importance to examine these roles carefully to gain a better understanding of the type of, the quantity of, and the time period when resources are required by women and men so as to perform their roles.

1.1.1 Crop Agriculture Communities

In societies, such as Yei, that function from crop agriculture activities, the responsibilities of women in-

clude child bearing, caring for the family, nursing the sick, preparing food, cooking meals, fetching water and firewood, fishing, cutting grass for house and granary construction, preparing land, planting, weeding, harvesting, and storing food. In addition, many women keep small livestock such as chickens, ducks and goats. These livestock are used for income purposes and for ceremonial food. Men’s contributions include hunting, fishing, cutting poles for house and granary construction, clearing land, cultivating crops and, at times, assisting women in weeding and harvesting of crops.

1.1.2 Livestock Communities

In livestock communities, such as Mundri, cattle are the primary source of wealth, cash, savings, and pension. Their social institutions are highly influenced by the need to acquire and keep cattle: the timing of marriages, the system of justice, and the proceeding of divorce all involve cattle. However, as in the agriculture communities, the reproductive, productive, and community roles are allocated according to gender: men have certain roles and women have others.

Women in the livestock communities care for children, nurse the sick, fetch water and firewood, clear land, plant, weed, scare birds, harvest, thresh, cut grass and reeds for houses, collect wild foods, fish and brew beer. In addition, women in these communities milk cows and process sour milk, cream, butter and cheese. They are also in charge of managing food supplies for their households. Men spend most of their time in the cattle camp, caring for cattle and ensuring that the cattle are fed and healthy. They also cut poles for houses and granary construction, hunt, make spears, fish, prepare land for cultivation, plant, weed, harvest, trade cattle, and buy goats and cattle.

1.2 DISASTER AND ITS IMPACT ON MEN AND WOMEN

The current situation of women in Sudan has been exacerbated by many years of conflict, resulting in a complex emergency situation. The poorest people in the society are most often the women and children in female-headed households. This is because women are less mobile and men tend to leave their homes in search of employment and food, leaving women behind to assume new roles and responsibilities for which they are the least prepared. This situation also tends to increase workloads of women and consequently reduces the quality of care given to the family.

Furthermore, the set of problems women face during conflicts/insecurity are uniquely different from those faced by men in the same communities. For example, women living in the conflict areas of Sudan face problems of insecurity resulting from the war, which include bombings, attacks and raids by the Popular Defense Forces (PDF) and combatants. The attacks against women are unique in that women have been forced to watch the torture and killing of loved ones. They, themselves, have been kidnapped, forced into labor and enslavement, raped, and have had their property and food stolen. These types of attacks often cause mental and psychological trauma that lasts for years and may forever alter lives. Unfortunately, no study has been conducted to understand the impact of such events on the psycho-social condition of Sudanese women, their children, their livelihood strategies, and their capacity to become self-sufficient. Victims have remained silent throughout years of conflict.

1.3 WOMEN AND NATURAL RESOURCES WORKING GROUP

The Women and Natural Resources Working Group (WNR) is one of six Strategic Analysis and Capacity Building groups formed with assistance from USAID. In addition to WNR, other working groups include Agriculture, Wildlife and Livestock, Forestry and In-

digenuous Food Plants, Geology, and Institutional and Legal Framework. These groups were created to build capacity and provide analytic data from which economic rehabilitation can be established. For the first time southern Sudanese technical experts have been invited by the SPLM to provide technical assistance (advisory and training) that will contribute to the development of policies and practices for the sustainable management of agriculture and natural resources in New Sudan.

The goal of WNR is to identify factors affecting women's access to and ownership of resources (most of which are inherent in the culture, traditions, and political power structures, and are re-enforced by laws and policies). WNR also ensures that senior decision-making authorities and development agencies have a good understanding of female equality goals at the grassroots level. The activities of the working group are expected to channel women's knowledge of sustainable natural resource management as it concerns potential policy outcomes. In addition, the group will acquire skills in needs-identification, assessments, data gathering and compilation. With these skills, WNR will be able to analyze different technical options for natural resource management and to influence government and NGO policies and programs.

1.4 PROBLEM STATEMENT

As noted above, women are productive members of their households and communities. However, in New Sudan their actual contribution remains obscured by the fact that most of their efforts and time are spent on performing unpaid tasks. Women's valuable contributions to social, economic, national, and regional activities are regarded only as domestic chores.

It is not clear to what extent Sudanese society has been transformed over the years, particularly with regard to the position, roles, responsibilities and activities that women are expected to perform and accomplish. Even less clear is the manner in which women actually continue to meet the basic roles that peacetime women are expected to perform in Africa, in addition to the wartime expectations of women.

In planning the resettlement and rehabilitation of any society, there is a need to understand the resource base upon which to build intervention activities. At the individual and family level, there is a need to understand the available economic resources, the human resource base and capabilities, and the primary objective of the planning and development process. Though anecdotal evidence suggests that women produce goods and services for markets at household and community levels, little is known about their resource base, their production output or their skill levels. Even less is known about the management and control that women are able to exercise over the wealth they create. Lack of concrete knowledge about women's resource base makes the establishment of critical inputs necessary to empower women.

It is known that women's contributions to peace building and reconciliation are very strong at household and community levels, but these contributions tend to diminish at national and international levels. A good example of female involvement at the grassroots level was their participation in the people-to-people peace negotiations and treaties in Wunlit and Lirlir. However, at national and international levels, women are significantly absent. The causes for the differences in contributions are not clear. Even more important, though, is the development of policy options, programs, and plans that would lead to full participation at all levels. Equally important is the need to ensure that women are active participants in postwar negotiations, policy, program and law formulations. Female participation will ensure that the new realities and positive aspects gained with time are not reversed. A worst-case scenario can easily happen in the absence of active participation of women. It is necessary, therefore, to identify what causes the lack of female participation.

Despite sentiments about the rights of women in the conference of the civil society in 1996, the protection and promotion of women's rights as expressed in the National Convention in 1994, and the efforts by humanitarian agencies to include women-focused economic initiatives, there is still a wide gap between the current status of women and what is desired (Judiciary Committee Report, 2000). This gap was pointed

out during the SPLM Women's Conference of 1998, which highlighted women's low levels of literacy and skills, paltry incomes, heavy workload, and limited access to economic resources. The suggested resolutions on policies and prescriptions (including affirmative action) to ensure equality are yet to be transformed into actual policies and laws, which will lead to societal changes of attitudes regarding women.

The absence of a gender-sensitive development policy and broad-based data relating to the situation of women in New Sudan further compounds this problem. Such vital statistics are necessary for evaluating the current status of women and monitoring the impact of policies or programs on women. Today, data concerning resource potential and constraints to women's development in New Sudan are unavailable. Data required to guide development policies aimed at minimizing inequalities while permitting the contribution of women to society (including their full participation in economic development and family/community social welfare) are all lacking. The need to build a database concerning the women of New Sudan makes this baseline survey not only an important exercise but a critical one in planning for peace, resettlement, rehabilitation, and development.

1.5 RATIONALE FOR THE BASELINE STUDY

In order to increase the participation of women in reconciliation, peace building, post-conflict reconstruction and social and economic development, it is important to understand their roles, challenges, and opportunities. Thus, a comprehensive development strategy that aims at mainstreaming women into the social, economic, and political activities of the country should be created.

The lack of accurate and reliable data on the situation of women and their contribution to the economic welfare of their households and communities clearly demonstrates the low level of interest in the issue. In most Sudanese societies, women spend about 80% of their time and effort providing care, services, and food to

their households and communities. The remaining time is spent on economic activities such as production of cash, surplus food crops, and other goods and services for the local markets.

As indicated above, women produce goods and services for markets at household and community levels. However, in most cases the incomes are spent on household requirements such as food, soap, salt, clothing, payment of school fees, and health services. Or alternatively, this income is managed and controlled by male members of the family. This makes it very difficult for women to save money, build assets and invest in the expansion or establishment of larger, more profitable businesses.

In New Sudan, women constitute approximately 60% of the population. In general, they are the most affected by the war. The extremely adverse conditions brought about by the war have caused increased pressure on women to participate in the social and economic spheres of their communities. This contribu-

tion, though often not recognized, has been at a very high personal cost for most women. It has made women targets of military operations such as shootings, landmines, and high altitude bombings as well as various forms of physical and psychological abuses that have led to death and serious disabilities.

Understanding the factors that cause the marginalization of women and the different way that conflicts affect women is key to the development of equitable and balanced policies and programs. The primary difficulty is that very little is known about the socio-economic and legal status of women in New Sudan, thereby making it difficult to quantify or qualify statements made about the marginalization of women. Without the requisite documentary evidence of such marginalization, it is even more difficult to draw the attention of policy makers and to educate communities about women's rights.

2. Methodological Approach

2.1 STUDY DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

Very little reliable data exists on southern Sudan. Most of the information available lies in estimates from organizations carrying out relief work in the region. Two counties of southern Sudan have therefore been purposively selected to participate in this study. Yei and Mundri Counties were selected for the pilot survey because of their geographic location. The counties also represent the socio-cultural diversity of New Sudan. Yei is a predominantly crop agriculture community that has access to East Africa through Uganda. Mundri is a livestock community, located deep in the interior of South Sudan. These two areas combined represent agro- and ecological production, and thus they were included in the study.

2.2 SAMPLING

2.2.1 Determination of Sample Size

The sample size in this survey was based on two factors: 1) the limited documented information about the population living in the area and, 2) the need to ensure a proper cross-section of the population living in the survey region.

Assuming the combined population of Mundri and Yei is 500,000 people, of whom 45% (225,000) are adults, and, of the adult population, women constitute 65% (146,250), the sample size that will represent the population in the two counties is estimated using the formula, where P =population of women, n =population sample size, Z =95% confidence interval (assuming a normal distribution), and D =sampling error of 5%:

Sample size = $n/(1-(n/\text{population}))$ or:

$$n = Z^2 P(1-P)/(D^2 D)$$

With the total population of adult women in the selected areas of the study being 146,250, a sample size of 605 women would be acceptable assuming a 27% expected frequency and a rejection point at 23%, with a confidence level at 95%.

2.2.2 Selection of Sample

To obtain the sample of households where a listing of households is not available, the WHO 30 cluster coverage method was adopted. The method was particularly suitable for such areas and has been widely used in similar situations where the drawing of an effective sampling frame proves impracticable.

The sampling frame is a listing of communities from the population estimates of Yei and Mundri. To obtain the sampling interval (S_i) the following formula was used: $S_i = P_t/X$, where:

S_i = Sampling interval

P_t = Total population in the two counties of the study

X = Number of communities in which the study is to be carried out (in this case 30)

The sample communities were determined by adding the sampling interval to the last cumulative total obtained after selecting the previous community. The sample size was determined using 30 clusters of 20 households each in the two counties.

A total of 600 randomly sampled households constituted the survey (See Appendix for Survey Questionnaire). In the selected households all female heads-of- households were interviewed, while in the male-headed households a sample of males or their spouses were selected as respondents. All respondents were 14 years of age or older.

2.3 RECRUITMENT AND TRAINING OF FIELD STAFF

Two teams (each consisting of a female team leader, eight female and five male interviewers, and focus group moderators) were selected for training. The selection of research assistants depended mainly on proficiency in English and the local languages of the area of study. The team leaders, however, had some previous practical experience in mixed method approaches in field population research and team leadership.

Joint training of interviewers and supervisors was undertaken in Yei from December 10 to 21, 2002. The training was carried out by the principal researcher and the coordinator of the Women and Natural Resources Working Group. Care was taken to ensure that the trainees were well equipped with knowledge and skills concerning:

1. The purpose and objectives of the study, administration of the survey, the selected methodology, and an understanding of the questionnaire.
2. Selection of the sample size, selection of the household, survey direction, and review of the English questionnaire.
3. Interviewing techniques, questionnaire translation into local languages, familiarization with the local language versions of the questionnaire, explanation of role play methods, body language indicators, and sensitivity concerning difficult questions.
4. Actual role-play exercises and familiarization with the different versions of the questionnaire.
5. Focus group discussion on moderation and note taking, and explanations on conducting in-depth interviews, using Venn-diagrams, cross-sectional walks, retrospective cross-sectional walks, SWOL, and Gender Analysis.
6. The role of the supervisors and interviewers.

The training included a field test of the survey tools and instruments. The interviewers randomly selected

two communities within a 15-mile radius of Yei. Using the questionnaire, each member of the field staff interviewed at least two women.

At the end of the field pretest, the study team discussed the process and problems which arose from the questionnaires and interview process, as well as other methods of data collection.

2.4 STRATEGY OF FIELDWORK STUDY

Fieldwork consisted of conducting interviews and focus group discussions, carrying out in-depth interviews, key informant interviews, transect walks, and activity time planning. While the questionnaire was applied in each of the 30 clusters, the qualitative methods were only applied in two randomly selected clusters per county. All the male interviewers, all the supervisors, and one female interviewer collected qualitative data. The purpose for assigning specific teams to qualitative data was to enable them to acquire the trust of the communities among which they were conducting the interviews, thereby allowing them to collect information in an in-depth manner.

At the beginning of each field day, interviewers were assigned to the supervisors and each individual was given a number of questionnaires. Each team was assigned a vehicle and one or two communities in which to conduct interviews. The supervisors edited the completed questionnaires. Oftentimes, arrangements were made for the study team to reside within the communities of study.

In order to ensure consent and confidentiality, interviewers were instructed to advise the potential respondents that they were not obliged to participate in the survey and that no penalty or service would be withheld from them if they chose not to participate. Interviewers were also trained in skills of establishing a rapport with the respondents by informing them that all information would be held in confidence, and that the information would be used to help the Women and Natural Resources Working Group and other groups develop activities for the entire region. To ensure con-

confidentiality, all names on the questionnaires and in the data set have been omitted and/or destroyed.

2.5 METHODS OF DATA ANALYSIS

The qualitative sections in the questionnaire were translated from the local languages into English by a team consisting of supervisors and selected interviewers. They were coded after establishing a coding frame. Data entry and analysis were carried out with the use

of the EPI-INFO 6.02 computer software package. Analysis consisting of data cleaning, frequency runs, cross-tabulations and multivariate classification was applied using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS). Statistical measures to establish the margin of error and reliability were used.

In addition to the above measures, more detailed analysis of the findings included the computation of the Household Wealth Index, time series analysis, and means analysis on such data as the activity timeline², household size, etc.

² To establish the average time spent on different activities per day by individual women from the time of waking-up to the time of going to bed.

3. Demographic and Health Characteristics

3.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter examines the demographic and health characteristics of the respondents and their households as a means of establishing the extent to which these characteristics facilitate or constrain women's full participation in social and economic life. In reference to the following pages, a household is defined as a group of persons (or one person) who make common provision for food, shelter, and other livelihood essentials.

3.2 DEMOGRAPHIC CHARACTERISTICS OF THE STUDY POPULATION

The study was carried out in Yei and Mundri Counties, located in Western Equatoria, South Sudan. Six hundred heads-of-households were interviewed. Of these 600 people, 236 (39%) were men and 364 (61%) were women (Figure 3.1). While an almost equal number of men and women were interviewed in Mundri County (48.3% men and 51.7% women), more than two-thirds (69.7%) of the respondents were women in Yei County.

3.2.1 Age of Respondents

The average age of female respondents was 37-years-old and men were, on average, 43-years-old. The youngest female respondent was 14-years-old, and the youngest male respondent was 18-years-old.

Table 3.1 and Figure 3.2 indicate that there were relatively more females in the younger age groups (younger than 40 years) than males, while there were relatively more male respondents than females in age groups above 40 years. A cumulative analysis indicates that 50% of the females were younger than 35 years of age and 50% of the men were older than 42. The age-sex distribution of this population implies that women in the region are married to much older men. It could also be that women get married at very early ages.

3.2.2 Population Structure

In the 600 households covered in this study, there was a total of 4,174 people, among whom 51.7% were females and 48.3% were males.

In both Mundri and Yei, there were more males than females in the under 20 age group (Table 3.2 and Figure 3.3). The trend reversed for the 20 to 40 age group, where there were more females than males. In the over 40 age group the population of males and females varied, indicating no clear pattern of gender differentiation in the household population. In most Afri-

Figure 3.1: Respondents by Gender

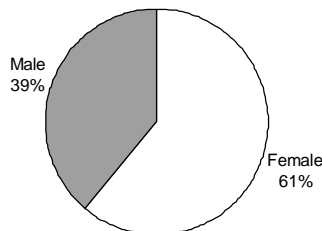
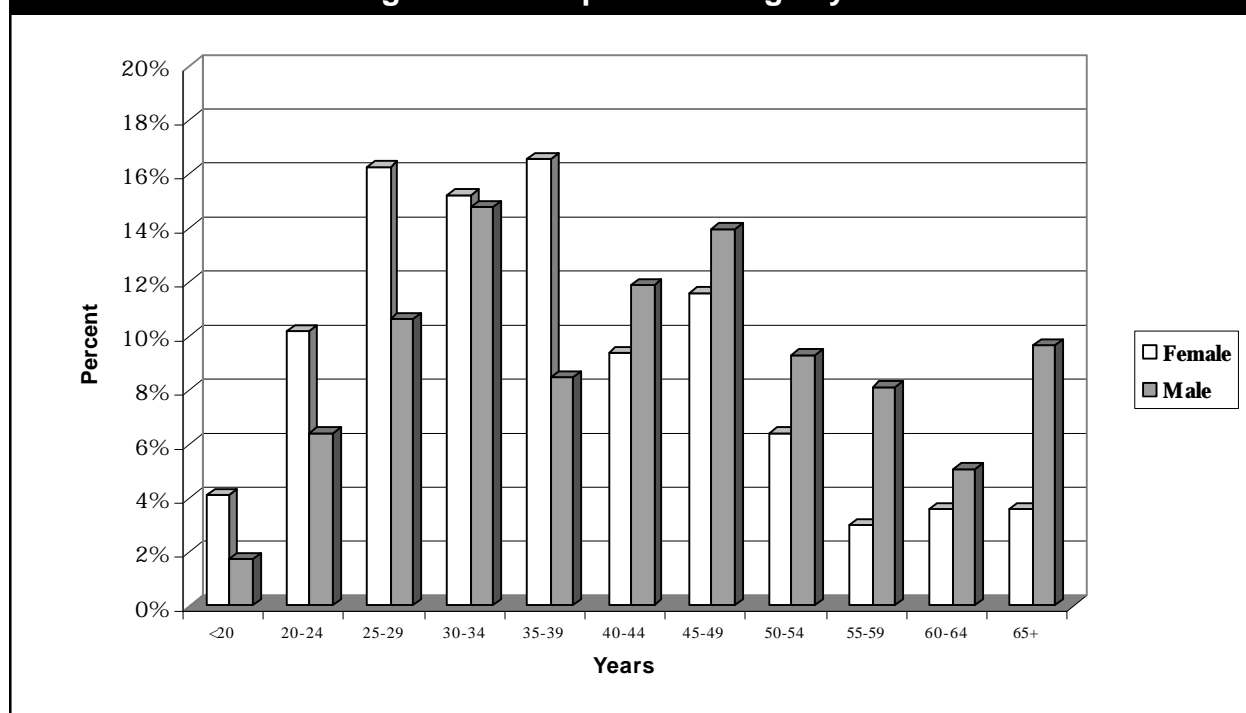


Table 3.1: Respondent's Age by Sex			
Respondent's Age	Female (n=362)	Male (n=236)	Total (n=598)
<20	4.1%	1.7%	3.2%
20-24	10.2%	6.4%	8.7%
25-29	16.3%	10.6%	14.0%
30-34	15.2%	14.8%	15.1%
35-39	16.6%	8.5%	13.4%
40-44	9.4%	11.9%	10.4%
45-49	11.6%	14.0%	12.5%
50-54	6.4%	9.3%	7.5%
55-59	3.0%	8.1%	5.0%
60-64	3.6%	5.1%	4.2%
65+ years	3.6%	9.7%	6.0%

Figure 3.2: Respondent's Age by Sex



can populations the proportion of women in the 20-40 age group is usually lower than that of males, usually as a result of high maternal mortality rates.

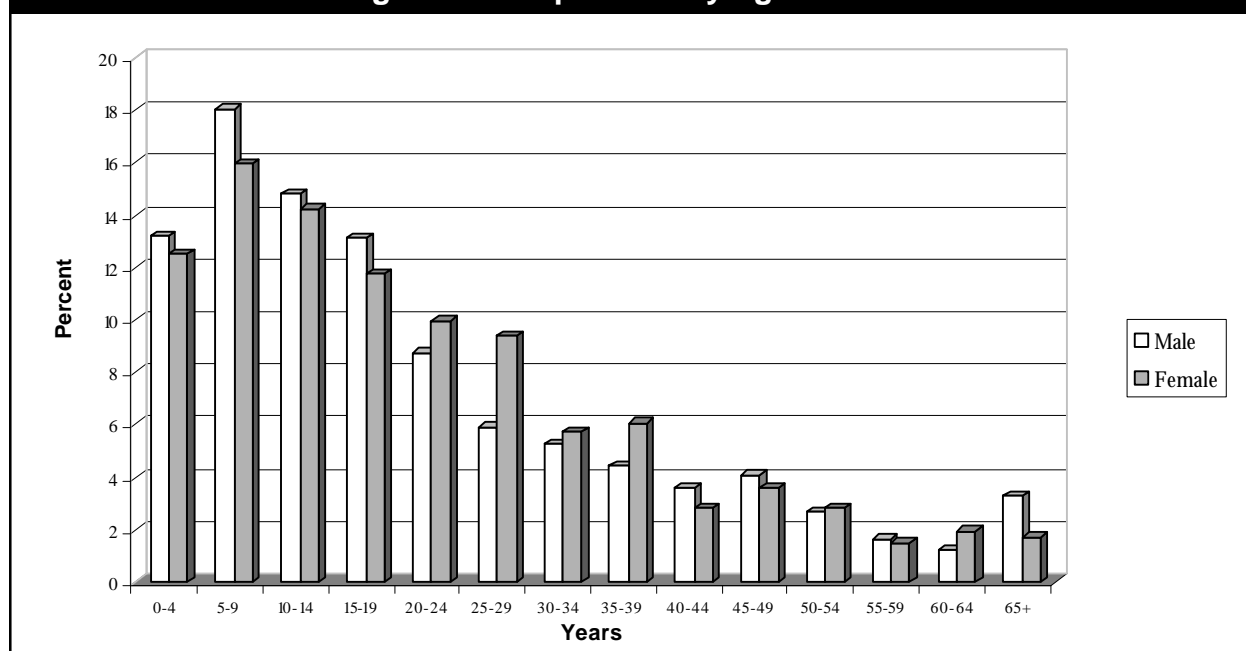
The higher proportion of females in the 20-40 age group results from two factors. First, relatively more men than women are likely to go to war and would either be absent at the time of the survey or were killed in action. Second, men in the same age group

are more likely than women to have migrated to neighboring countries in search of jobs, education opportunities, or refugee status.

The implications of this statistic concerning household farm labor indicates a high gender bias towards women and relatively higher rates of female-headed households. The economic and social implications of all this are far reaching and will affect the region for

Table 3.2: Population Distribution by Age and Gender (in Percent)				
Age	Mundri		Yei	
	Female (n=1205)	Male (n=1068)	Female (n=953)	Male (n=948)
0-4	10.0	13.0	15.6	13.4
5-9	15.9	17.4	15.9	18.8
10-14	13.4	12.0	15.2	18.0
15-19	12.0	13.3	11.4	13.0
20-24	11.0	9.1	8.6	8.3
25-29	9.4	6.7	9.4	5.0
30-34	6.3	5.8	5.0	4.6
35-39	6.2	4.5	5.9	4.3
40-44	3.2	3.8	2.4	3.3
45-49	3.4	4.2	3.8	3.9
50-54	3.2	3.1	2.4	2.2
55-59	1.5	1.7	1.5	1.6
60-64	2.4	1.5	1.4	0.9
65+	2.0	3.8	1.4	2.6

Figure 3.3: Population by Age and Sex



decades, as children are denied the care of their fathers, and mothers are incapable of putting their children through school due to economic constraints.

3.2.3 Household Size and Head-of-Household

The average household size is a measure of the total population divided by the number of households. Large household sizes imply an increased resource demand

for sustenance. On the other hand, they may also be a reflection of the labor potential within the households. Large households are generally associated with traditional societies, which typically do not practice contraception and have lower levels of education. Women's occupations in these households can include farming and housework rather than professional-type jobs. According to Bongaarts (2001), household size

is found to be positively associated with the level of fertility and the mean age at marriage, and inversely associated with the level of marital disruption.

As indicated, there were 4,205 people in the sample of 600 households covered in this study. The average household size was therefore seven people per household, which is one of the largest in the world.³ Female-headed households were nearly one-fifth (17%) of the total 600 surveyed households. The average household size among the 104 female-headed households was 6.3 people. The average household size among the 496 male-headed households was 7.2 people. The large household size of New Sudan needs critical investigation. While the relatively lower household size among female-headed households seems to support Bongaarts (2001) assertion that household size is inversely associated with the level of marital disruption, the generally high household size in the region may be a reflection of unique population dynamics in the region associated with long periods of armed conflict, early marriages and high fertility rates. Some of these issues will be analyzed later.

3.3 MARITAL STATUS

The implications of marriage on the status of women varies from society to society as indicated in Box 3.1 where two extremes of traditional agricultural societies are shown in sharp contrast with the way women are treated.

Moreover, the marital status of women has critical implications for child bearing. Women living in dissolved unions (separated, divorced, or widowed) are less likely to have children in a given period of time than those who are married. With regard to women's economic status, the implications of marital dissolution for women's status will depend largely on the

³ The 1991 Uganda Population and Housing Census for instance found an average household size of 4.8 people per household. Bongaarts (2001) analysis of 44 country Demographic and Health Surveys found that average household size varies only modestly among regions, ranging from 5.6 in the Near East/North Africa to 4.8 in Latin America.

Box 3.1: Comparative Status of Women

In West Africa among the Yoruba, Ibo, Igbo, and Dahomey peoples, women's status is strongly characterized by their ability to own fields and crops, dominate the local market, acquire wealth from trade, and carry out agricultural activities independent of men. In these societies the bride price men pay to get married is perceived as indicative of women's value. Male polygamy is permitted only with permission of the senior wife. Women participate in village councils and high state office. Women also mobilize as a group to seek redress against mistreatment by men. — Marvin Harris, Women's Status in Agricultural Societies

In Nama (Papua, New Guinea) male initiation trains men to be warriors and to dominate women. Males are given brides at initiation and the man shoots the woman in the thigh with an arrow to demonstrate his "unyielding power over her". Women work in gardens, raise pigs, and do all dirty work. Men stand around gossiping. "Women were severely punished for adultery by having burning sticks thrust into their vagina, or they were killed by their husbands; they were whipped with canes if they spoke out of turn or were presumed to offer their opinions at public gatherings; they were physically abused in marital arguments. Men could never be seen to be weak or soft in dealings with women. Men do not require specific incidents or reasons to abuse or mistreat women: it is part of the normal course of events; indeed, in ritual and myth, it is portrayed as the essential order of things." — Daryl Feil, University of Sydney

culture of the population. Women in dissolved unions who can control production resources or have a decisive say regarding their labor may be better off economically than those in marriage. Being single or widowed is less likely to result in poverty and insecurity when compared to women who were once married and then were divorced/dispossessed by husbands or in-laws.

There were significant gender differences by marital status in both Mundri and Yei. Generally there were more married men (more than 80%) among the re-

spondents in both counties than women (Table 3.3). In Yei however, the proportion of married women was significantly higher (82%) than in Mundri (62%). The proportion of widows in Mundri was significantly high. Widows make up a fifth of all women in Mundri. At 28%, there were more women in Mundri living in dissolved unions than in Yei (16%). The proportion of women who had never married was higher in Mundri (8.9%) than in Yei (1.5%).

The implications of marital disruption for women's status under situations of conflict (as have taken place in Mundri) have been well-documented in Africa. According to Empowering Widows in Development, thousands of men in Mozambique were killed during the civil war, leaving their wives to face life as widows. Among the returning refugee women and children, over 60% were widows. The major transformations that took place ravaged the country for years, destroyed family solidarity, and profoundly affected gender relations, leaving a situation where violence against women escalated and many women and children were destitute. There has also been a progressive decline of the extended family and a corresponding increase in female-headed households. In addition, many women conceived children as the result of rape or a casual union with a soldier. These men's whereabouts are unknown and the women are left destitute.

In Uganda, society has suffered tremendously in the last 30 years: from civil war, oppressive dictatorships, massacres, vast social upheavals, internal displacement, the breakup of the traditional family, increasing poverty, escalating violence towards women, and the

scourge of AIDS. As a result, there are uncounted numbers of widows and deserted women: war widows, AIDS widows, child widows, young mothers, and orphans. The higher number of elderly widows reflects the longer life expectancy of women and the age disparity in many marriages.

Moreover, widows suffer discrimination in inheritance, in mourning rites, through violence, and in employment opportunities. They most often live in poverty and under extreme oppression. Similar prejudices as in Mozambique prevail: accusations of witchcraft and murder, lack of inheritance rights despite the modern law, and unrightful claiming of property.

3.4 MORTALITY, FERTILITY, AND FAMILY PLANNING

3.4.1 Mortality Situation

There was a statistically significant difference in mortality rates between Mundri and Yei. In Mundri 82% of the households had lost a member since 1990, while in Yei 70% of the respondents had lost a member during the same period. Not only had more households in Mundri lost people than in Yei since 1990, but the ratio of the number of people who had died was higher. On average Mundri had lost 3.6 people per household since 1990 while Yei had an average of 2.8 deceased people per household.

An analysis of the gender of the deceased persons in the 12-year period (1990 to 2002) indicated that in both Yei and Mundri, 56% of the deaths were males.

Table 3.3: Marital Status by Gender and County

	Mundri		Yei	
	Female (n=158) %	Male (n=142) %	Female (n=205) %	Male (n=95) %
Marital status				
Never Married	8.9%	4.2%	1.5%	4.2%
Married	62.0%	83.8%	82.4%	85.3%
Cohabiting	1.3%	n/a	n/a	1.1%
Separated	5.7%	2.1%	2.4%	1.1%
Divorced	1.9%	0.7%	1.0%	3.2%
Widowed	20.3%	9.2%	12.7%	4.2%

Table 3.4: Cause of Death of Household Member

Cause of death	Mundri		Yei	
	Female (n=360) %	Male (n=457) %	Female (n=253) %	Male (n=316) %
Illness, untreated	39.7	37.4	19.0	17.7
Illness traditionally treated	4.2	5.3	7.1	7.6
Inadequate medical treatment	38.9	32.4	26.9	26.9
Nutritional	0.3	0.0	4.7	1.3
Killed/Wounded	1.7	12.3	4.0	13.0
Don't Know	6.9	4.8	13.4	13.0
Others (Specify)	8.3	7.9	24.9	20.6

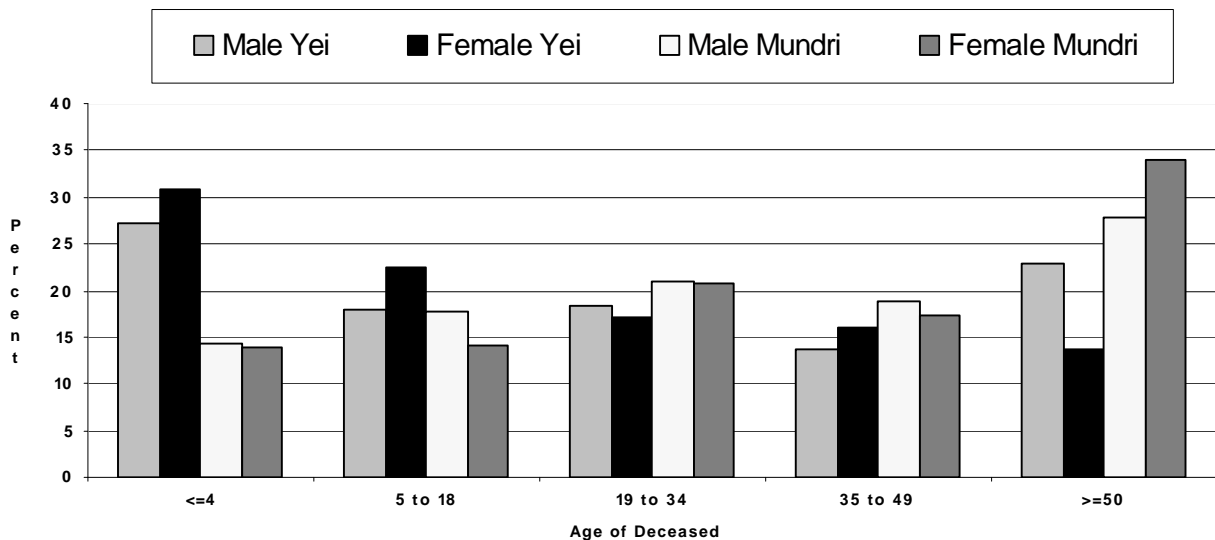
The causes of death of the 1,386 deceased were reported. Of the deceased persons, 817 (59%) were from Mundri and 569 (41%) were from Yei.

The number of deaths due to killing was the major difference in the causes of death among men and women. In Mundri, 12% of the males who had died since 1990 had been killed, while less than 2% of the females had been killed. Likewise in Yei, killings accounted for 13% of all male deaths, while 4% of the females had been killed. While untreated or poorly treated illnesses accounted for a high proportion of the mortality rates, there were significant inter-county differences. Among the males, untreated illness accounted for 37% of the deaths in Mundri and 18% of those in Yei. Among the women, untreated illness ac-

counted for 40% of the deaths in Mundri and 19% of those in Yei (Table 3.4).

Among the males in Yei, the proportion of death among those under age 5 and those over age 50 was high (50%). In Mundri, the proportion of death for the same groups was lower (45%). For males between the ages of 19 and 49, there was relatively higher mortality in Mundri (40%) than in Yei (32%) (Figure 3.4).

With regard to female mortality, in Mundri there was a 51% mortality rate for women aged 35-years and older. In Yei, there was a 30% mortality rate for women aged 35 years and older. Many of the female

Figure 3.4: Sex of Deceased Person by Age

and male deaths in Yei occur in the under-5 age group (31%).

3.4.2 Fertility Situation

Nine percent of the women in Yei and 7% of the females in Mundri reported that they were pregnant at the time of the survey. Of the 264 female respondents in this study who were between 14 and 49 years of age and were not pregnant, 38% reported that they wanted to have another child in the two year period after the survey and 22% were not sure whether they wanted to have another child.

3.4.3 Contraceptive Practices

Among the same group of women, 19% reported using some contraception at the time of the survey. Of the 122 women in Mundri who were not pregnant and younger than 50 years, 24% reported using some contraception. In Yei, 14% were using contraception.

Only 19% of the surveyed women in Mundri and Yei combined reported that they were using any form of contraception. The majority of these (88%) were using

traditional methods such as exclusive breastfeeding, rhythm, calendar, natural, or abstinence. The most common form of birth control in Mundri and Yei combined was abstinence (44%). However, there were wide inter-county variations in the type of contraception used. In Mundri, 51% of the respondents using contraception (both male and female) reported abstinence as their primary form of birth control, whereas 33% of those in Yei reported abstinence as their method of contraception. Instead, those in Yei relied on the rhythm or calendar method as the primary form of contraception, with 39% of the users reportedly applying this method. In Mundri, 14% reported using the rhythm method.

3.5 ANTENATAL SERVICES, BIRTH SUPERVISION, AND CHILD IMMUNIZATION

3.5.1 Timing of First Antenatal Visit

In general there was hardly any difference between the responses from women and men with regard to first antenatal care (Table 3.6). However, a relatively higher proportion of men and women in Mundri than in Yei were aware that the right time to seek antenatal care was within the first trimester of pregnancy.

Among those who indicated that there is no need to seek antenatal care, the reasons given included lack of health problems, lack of knowledge about antenatal care, lack of pregnancy problems, failure to communicate with spouses, lack of health information, lack of midwives, lack of medical personnel, lack of health units, or long distances to health units.

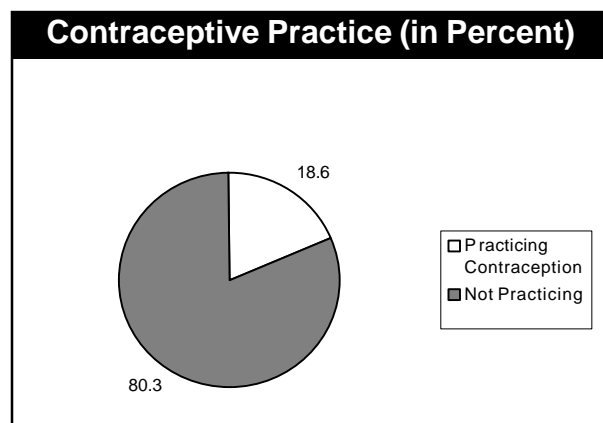


Table 3.5: Contraception Methods

Contraceptive methods used	Mundri (n=49) %	Yei (n=33) %	Total (n=82) %
Injections	0.0	6.1	2.4
Pill	2.0	3.0	2.4
Condoms	6.1	9.1	7.3
Exclusive breastfeeding	26.5	9.1	19.5
Rhythm	14.3	39.4	24.4
Abstinence	51.0	33.3	43.9

Table 3.6: Knowledge of Appropriate Time to Seek First Antenatal Care (by Gender)

Time of first pre-natal visit	Mundri		Yei	
	Female (n=158) %	Male (n=142) %	Female (n=205) %	Male (n=95) %
First 3 months	71.5	73.9	66.3	54.7
4-6 months	17.1	9.9	20.5	24.2
7-9 months	0.6	0.7	2.4	3.2
Doesn't know	8.9	12.0	6.8	15.8
No need	1.9	3.5	3.9	2.1

3.5.2 Birth Supervision and Immunization

Details of the birth supervision and immunization status of 643 children under age 5 were recorded. Of these, 29% had been supervised by a health care provider, while 87% had received at least one immunization.

3.6 GYNECOLOGICAL ISSUES

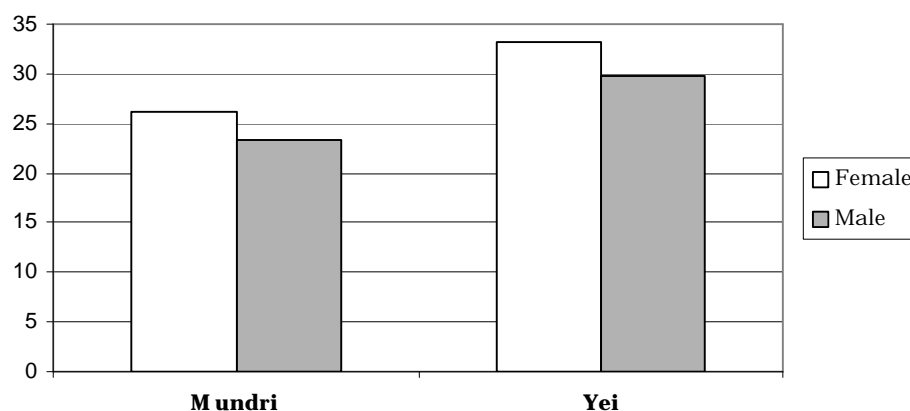
One-quarter (25%) of all the respondents in Mundri and nearly one third (32%) of their counterparts in Yei had indicated that they themselves or their wives had experienced a pregnancy-related problem (Figure 3.5).

The leading pregnancy-related problem in Mundri and Yei was syphilis, which was reported by 28% of the respondents in Mundri and 13% of their counterparts in Yei (Table 3.7). Other significant problems included miscarriages, abdominal pain, bleeding, and difficulties in pregnancy and child delivery.

Seventy-eight percent of those in Mundri and 74% of those in Yei who reported gynecological problems had sought some medical care for their problem.

The public health care system and hospitals were the main source of health services for pregnancy-related problems. In Mundri more than half (53%) of all the pregnancy and child birth related problems were referred to the hospital. In Yei, this figure was 42%. While PHCUs and PHCCs provide some degree of health care, these facilities do not attract the same number of patients as do hospitals.

The quality of health service is directly linked to its ability to provide curative services for the clientele. More than half of those who sought medical care for gynecological problems in Mundri (56%) and almost 40% of their counterparts in Yei reported that they still had the problems for which they sought treatment at the time of the survey. Those who sought medical care and had some problems reported that the lack of drugs, the expense of the services, the lack of transport, and the inaccessibility of facilities

Figure 3.5: Number of Women with Pregnancy-Related Problems (in Percent)

were the leading hindrances to obtaining health services.

The lack of accessible services for some women posed either a danger to the mother's personal health or a potential loss of the unborn baby, as was reported by one woman in Gulumusi Village (Box 3.2). It is also important to note that about one-sixth of those who reportedly had gynecological problems did not seek any medical care.

3.7 MATERNAL MORTALITY IN THE LAST FIVE YEARS

Approximately one-third (33-34%) of all the respondents in both Mundri and Yei had relatives who had died due to complications from pregnancy or childbirth in the five years preceeding the survey.

Among those who reported losing relatives in the five years before the survey, 35 women in Mundri had died as a result of complications in pregnancy and childbirth. In Yei, 53 women had died due to the same causes.

Box 3.2: Impact of Health Care on Birthing

Every time Patricia (not her real name) from Gulumusi Village conceives, she miscarries unless she sees a doctor early. The cause of the miscarriages is a mystery to her, but every time she visited the doctor and was given some medicine, the pregnancy progressed normally. The distance from her home to the hospital in Yei is 27 miles. As there is no public or private transport, she walks to the clinic. In her opinion if there were a health center closer to the community, she would never have miscarried. She also pointed out that it is useless to have a health center that does not have enough drugs or a qualified staff.

Table 3.7: Pregnancy Problems and Medical Care

Type of problem in last 5 years	Mundri (n=78) %	Yei (n=95) %
Syphilis	28.2	12.6
Miscarriage	12.8	10.5
Abdomen pain	10.3	10.5
Bleeding	9.0	5.3
Child birth	7.7	11.6
Back pain	5.1	2.1
Pregnancy	3.8	8.4
Still birth	3.8	3.2
Anemia	2.6	4.2
Body pain	2.6	6.3
Infertility	2.6	3.2
Sickness	2.6	5.3
Labor	0.0	3.2
Uterine problems	0.0	3.2
Others	9.0	10.5
Sought medical care	79.2	73.7
Source of medical care		
Hospital	53.0	42.4
PHCU	15.2	15.3
PHCC	7.6	11.8
Traditional healer	6.1	4.7
Private doctor	4.5	7.1
Private drug store	0.0	2.4
None	13.6	16.5
Problem not cured	39.4	55.6
Maternal mortality	33.8	33.3

3.8 HEALTH AND MEDICAL CARE SITUATION

One way of assessing the health situation of the population is to examine the proportion of the population that is compelled to seek medical care over time. Accessibility to health services can be examined based on the distance to service points and care givers as well as cost of health services.

3.8.1 The Demand for Medical Care

Eighty-eight percent of the households in Mundri and 81% of the households in Yei had sought a health consultation in the 12 months prior to the survey. In Mundri 84% of the households had contacted a public health facility (hospital: 55%, health center: 22%, dispensary: 5%, or aid post: 2%) during their most recent illnesses.

In Yei, 77% of the households had used a public health unit. Unlike in Mundri, the hospitals in Yei did not attract as many patients: 24% of those who received medical attention went to the hospital. In Yei, the main facility was the health center (29%), while the dispensary and aid posts combined offered care to one-quarter of the households.

3.8.2 Access to Health Services

Table 3.9 indicates the population's access to health care services and providers in the two counties of Mundri and Yei.

The most distant health facilities in Yei are hospitals, laboratory services, and family planning centers (child spacing services) all of which are at an average dis-

Table 3.8: Health Provider Visited Most Recently

Health Service Provider	Mundri (n=263) %	Yei (n=235) %
Traditional healer	4.2	8.1
Aid post	2.3	11.5
Dispensary	5.3	13.6
Health center	22.4	28.5
Private drug store	0.4	0.0
Vendor /market shop	1.1	3.0
Private doctor/dentist /clinic	3.4	9.8
District/mission hospital	55.1	23.8
Other	4.6	1.3
None	1.1	0.4

tance of 25 miles or more. Overall, Mundri has slightly better access to health services than Yei (Figure 3.6).

On average, the distance to the nearest primary health care unit (PHCU) was 3.7 miles. For the primary health care center (PHCC) the average distance was 10.5 miles. The maternity units or PHCCs with maternity services were more rare, with women, on average, having to cover 19 miles before they accessed the service point (Table 3.9).

Table 3.9: Distance to Health Services by County and Type of Service

Distance to the nearest health facility	# of respondents	Maximum Miles	Mean Distance	
			Yei	Mundri
First point of health care	322	22	2.2	3.1
PHCU	485	36	3.6	3.7
PHCC	310	75	11.0	10.0
Maternity unit (with beds)	328	98	20.2	17.8
PHCC/maternity unit (with beds)	302	98	20.3	19.2
Hospital	553	97	33.3	24.4
Child spacing services	196	84	25.1	10.9
HU with laboratory services	493	97	26.7	15.7
Ambulance service	295	84	12.3	3.5
Qualified nurse	507	22.5	22.5	16.3
Qualified midwife	512	97	20.6	16.1
Qualified clinical officer	449	97	25.8	20.3
Qualified doctor	437	97	29.1	25.4
Traditional birth attendant	464	40	3.0	3.0
Traditional healer	310	61	3.4	3.2
Medicine vendor (market/ shop)	393	84	23.9	8.8
Family planning services	169	84	25.5	10.9

Figure 3.6: Mean Distance (in Miles) to the Closest Medical Facility

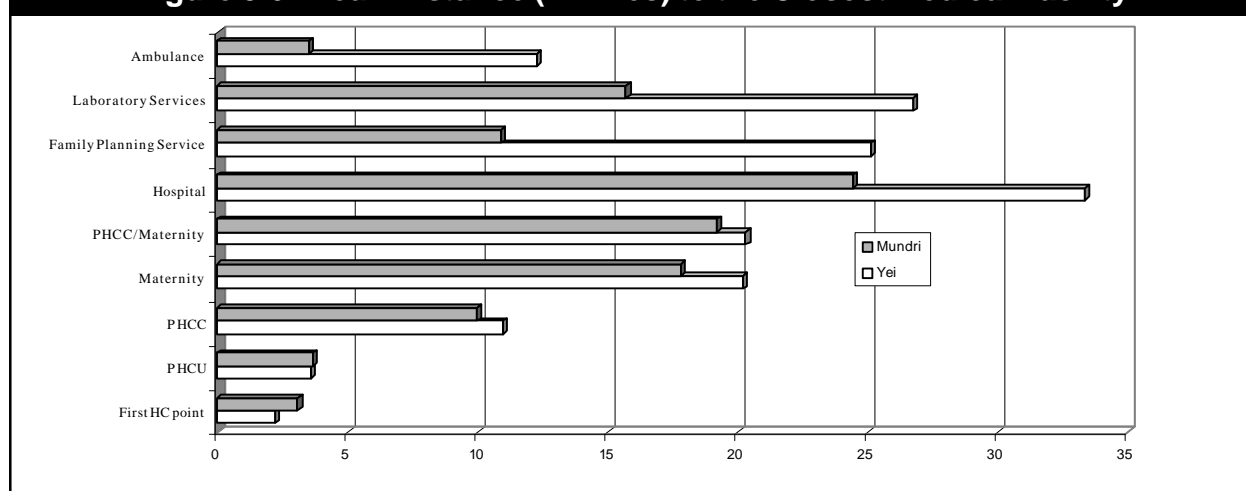
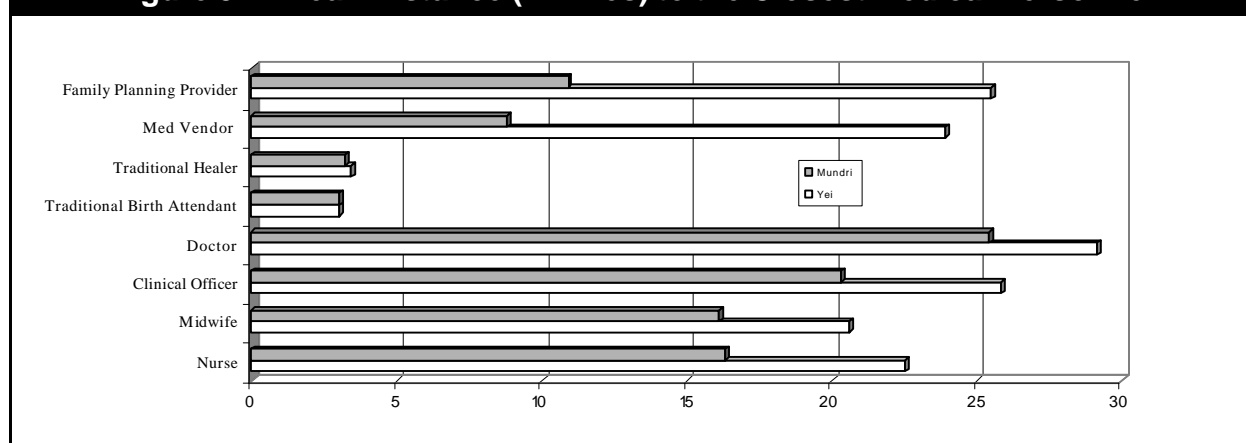


Figure 3.7: Mean Distance (in Miles) to the Closest Medical Personnel



While in Yei the average distance to the nearest hospital is 33 miles, in Mundri the average distance is 24 miles. Similarly, there were wide variations in family planning services between the two counties, with Yei having an average distance of 26 miles compared to Mundri's 11 miles. Laboratory services were at an average of 27 miles in Yei and 16 miles in Mundri. Any type of ambulance service, including bicycles, is at an average distance of 12 miles in Yei and an average distance of four miles in Mundri.

With regard to medical personnel, the nearest qualified nurse is located at an average distance of 23 miles in Yei and 16 miles in Mundri. In terms of distances to obtain health services, Mundri was in a better position than Yei, with the exception of traveling to traditional healers and birth attendants, in which case the two counties were equal (Figure 3.7).

3.8.3 The Use of Traditional Healers

One-third (33.8%) of the respondents in Mundri and 41.4% of their counterparts in Yei sought care from a traditional healer. The conditions that led to seeking medical advice included a wide range of ailments and are an indication of the complaints⁴ common in the communities. On the whole the range of ailments in

⁴ Limb, joint, chest, pelvic pain, severe pain in the leg, bewitched, backache, body pain, body rashes, constipation, cough, diarrhea, headache, severe headache, eczema, epilepsy, feeling cold and heavy, general body pain, cold, loss of weight, malaria, worms, yellow fever, nodding of head, paralysis, weight loss, snake bite, swelling. The list of ailments reportedly best handled by traditional healers were body aches, swelling stomach, swollen legs, syphilis, wounds, yellow fever, appendix, heart burn, body weakness, cellulustics, cellulites, de-skinning, eating lips, eye problem, fish disease, gonorrhea, heart pain and attack, hernia, infertility, pneumonia, poisoning, sleeping sickness.

Yei was wider than in Mundri. In Mundri 87% of those who had sought medical advice from traditional healers and 75% of their counterparts in Yei reported that the healer had cured them.

The majority of traditional healers are paid in cash. Others are paid in-kind, especially with goats, chickens and crop produce (such as sorghum and groundnuts). In some instances, however, the traditional healer is a relative, in which case payment is rarely proffered. The flexibility of the traditional medical care payment system allows for credit payment even if the person seeking medical care is not in a position to immediately pay for health care.

3.8.4 Quality of Health Services

While distance is important in determining access to social service, equally important is the quality of health services. The latter depends on a number of factors: competence and knowledge, the ratio of health personnel to population, facilities available (hospital beds, operating space, equipment, etc.) and availability of medication. Table 3.10 shows the combined capacity

of secondary health care services in Lui (Mundri's neighboring city) and Yei. Each county has a total population of 250,000 people.

Table 3.10 Personnel Number and Category in Lui and Yei Hospitals

Category	#
Medical officer	4
Comprehensive nurse (Registered)	10
Comprehensive nurse (Enrolled)	19
Clinical officer	10
Dispenser	13
Public health /Dental assistant	0
Laboratory Technician	5
Laboratory Assistant	10
Anesthetic officer	2
Health educator	5
Health information assistant	1
Health assistant	5
Nursing assistant	19
Health inspector	3
Medical entomology officer	0
Support staff (drivers, cleaners)	61

Table 3.11 Types of Diseases and Number of Cases Among Patients Age 4 and Younger

Disease/Cases Per Month	May	June	July	August	September	October	% of Total
Malaria	2,031	1,920	3,335	2,263	1,647	1,521	35
ARI (not pneumonia)	435	1,024	918	702	921	266	11.8
Diarrhea	696	693	629	605	697	457	10.4
Intestinal Worms	544	550	901	742	492	522	10.3
Other Diseases*	2,413	2,234	3,465	2,322	2,354	1,958	n/a
Total Diagnosis	6,119	6,421	9,248	6,634	6,111	4,724	n/a

* Other diseases, each being less than 10% of total, include dysentery, eye infections, trauma (injuries), skin diseases, pneumonia, anemia, gastro intestinal disease, urinary tract infection, typhoid fever, malnutrition, dental diseases, genital infections, hypertension, pregnancy complications, guinea worm, tuberculosis, meningitis, duodenal ulcers, leprosy, cholera, measles, and others.

Table 3.12 Types of Diseases and Number of Cases Among Patients Age 5 and Older

Disease/Cases Per Month	May	June	July	August	September	October	% of Total
Malaria	1,090	466	1,754	11,482	489	1,452	27
Intestinal Worms	414	325	1,025	590	519	922	14.8
Genital Infections	262	331	740	681	473	378	11.2
ARI (not pneumonia)	267	296	790	383	866	265	11.2
Other Diseases*	1,744	1,101	2,180	1,494	1,332	1,694	36
Total Diagnosis	3,777	2,519	6,489	14,630	3,679	4,711	100

* Other diseases, each being less than 10% of total, include pneumonia, cholera, pregnancy complications, urinary tract infection, trauma (injuries), ear infections, diarrhea, eye infections, hypertension, anemia, dysentery, tuberculosis, dental disease, guinea worm, vaginal discharge, meningitis, and others.

The four doctors in Mundri and Yei Counties put the ratio of doctors to population at 1:125,000 and that of registered nurses, enrolled nurses, and clinical officers at 1:50,000, 1:26,316 and 1:50,000, respectively. Health information officers, public health/dental assistants, and medical entomologists are some of the personnel that hospitals in Mundri and Yei are lacking.

In both Mundri and Yei Counties, the leading malady treated in hospitals is malaria. Among those under age 5, malaria was followed by acute respiratory infection (not pneumonia) (11.8%) and diarrhea (10.4%), while in adults, malaria was followed by intestinal worms (14.8%) and genital infections (11.2%) (Tables 3.11 and 3.12).

4. Social Indicators and Constraints

4.1 ECONOMIC BACKGROUND

4.1.1 Occupation

The occupation of both men and women is indicative of their education background and the gender status of the population. To an extent, it also determines the income and poverty levels of the population. Generally, people working in agriculture are often less educated than their counterparts in professional and trade occupations. High gender differentials in occupation are also likely to reflect the low status of women in agriculture and their education status.

Approximately two-thirds of all the respondents work in agriculture (Table 4.1). The rest were professionals (16.8%), clerical workers (6.2%), house workers

(4.8%), and traders (3.5%). In Both Mundri and Yei, the proportion of women who were engaged in agriculture was higher than that of men. For instance, whereas 79% of the women worked in agriculture in Mundri, only 55% of the men reported agriculture as their occupation. In Yei, 70% of the women and 50% of the men were in agriculture. Conversely, the proportion of men in both Yei and Mundri in professional and clerical occupations was higher than that of women.

4.1.2 Income and Household Economic Status

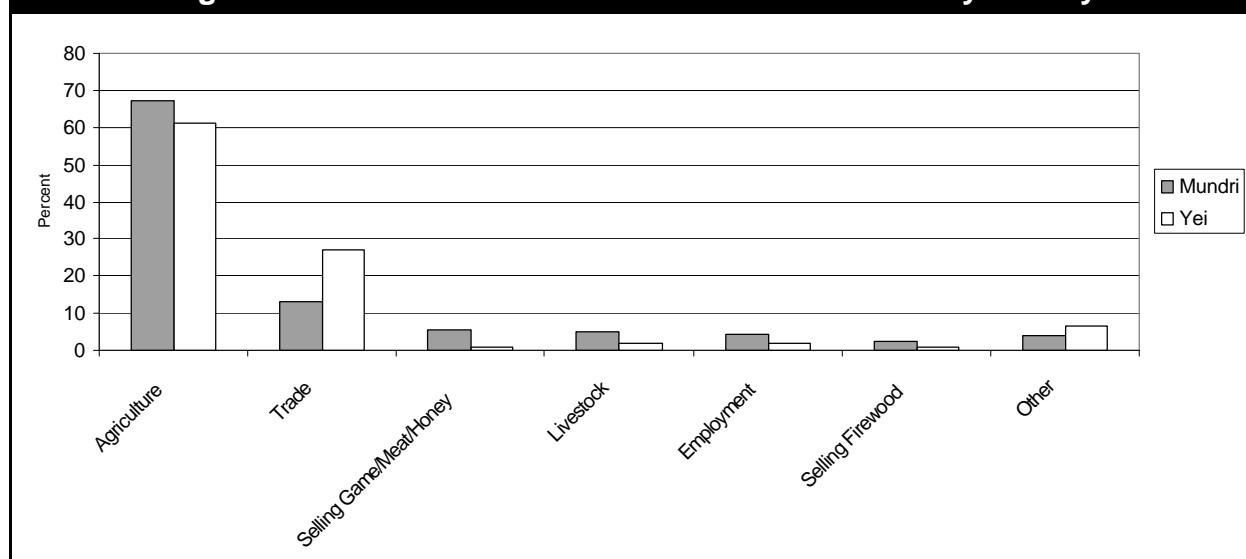
The main source of income for households in Mundri and Yei is agriculture. This constitutes income from both crops and animals.

The agriculture sector is the most important source of income for almost two-thirds of the study popula-

Table 4.1: Socio-Economic Characteristics of the Population (in Percent)

<u>Work Description</u>	Mundri		Yei		Total (n=600)
	Female (n=158)	Male (n=142)	Female (n=205)	Male (n=95)	
Housework	6.3	0.0	8.8	1.1	4.8
Professional	7.6	30.3	9.8	27.4	16.8
Clerical	2.5	8.5	3.9	13.7	6.2
Petty Trade	3.2	1.4	5.4	3.2	3.5
Agriculture	79.1	54.9	70.2	49.5	65.7
Armed Forces	0.0	0.7	0.0	1.1	0.3
Casual Laborer	0.0	0.7	0.0	1.1	0.3
Not working	0.0	1.4	0.0	2.1	0.7
Sick/retired/too old	0.6	2.1	1.0	0.0	1.0
Other	0.6	0.0	1.0	1.1	0.7
<u>Education Level</u>					
None	52.5	23.9	42.4	22.1	37.5
Nursery/Kindergarten	0.6	0.7	2.0	3.2	1.5
Primary	36.7	43.7	44.4	48.4	42.8
Junior	6.3	12.7	6.8	7.4	8.2
Secondary	3.8	15.5	4.4	16.8	8.8
University	0.0	0.0	0.0	1.1	0.2
Other Post Secondary	0.0	3.5	0.0	1.1	1.0

Figure 4.1: Main Sources of Income for Household by County



tion in both counties. Trade also plays an important role, accounting for 27% of the main source of income in Yei and 13% in Mundri. Other sources of income that are more prominent in Mundri than in Yei include the sale of game meat, domestic animals, charcoal/firewood, and employment outside the home (Figure 4.1).

4.1.3 Household Economic Index

To take stock of the general household wealth of Mundri and Yei and to make an assessment of their current wealth status, a Household Socio-Economic Index was computed using individual household wealth

variables such as household possessions, ownership of the means of production, livestock owned, and conditions of housing. The average wealth status of Mundri and Yei Counties is low. However, Mundri, with a mean index score of 12.5 points, is relatively better off than Yei, which has a mean index score of 9.7 points (Table 4.3).

This Household Wealth Index score was grouped into five equal groupings to obtain quintile wealth groups for the entire range of households surveyed. The minimum and maximum limits of each quintile were determined after arranging the entire sample of households according to their wealth score. Limits were then obtained. The score obtained for the two counties and the total area covered is indicated in Table 4.4.

As indicated in Table 4.4 and Figure 4.2, when measured against the standard of both counties, Mundri's wealthiest two groups make up about 50% of the total. When Yei's wealth groups are compared to the total, 58% of the total number of households fall into

Table 4.2: Household Wealth Possessions by County

Description	Mundri (n=300) %	Yei (n=300) %
Radio	11.4	23.9
Cassette Player	9.4	14.8
Bicycle	28.5	37.5
Sponge Mattress	12.1	25.8
Shop	1.0	0.3
Kiosk/Stall	0.7	1.7
Tea shop/ Restaurant /Bar	0.7	1.7
Cart	0.7	1.0
Oxen	0.3	0.3
Motorcycle	0	0.2

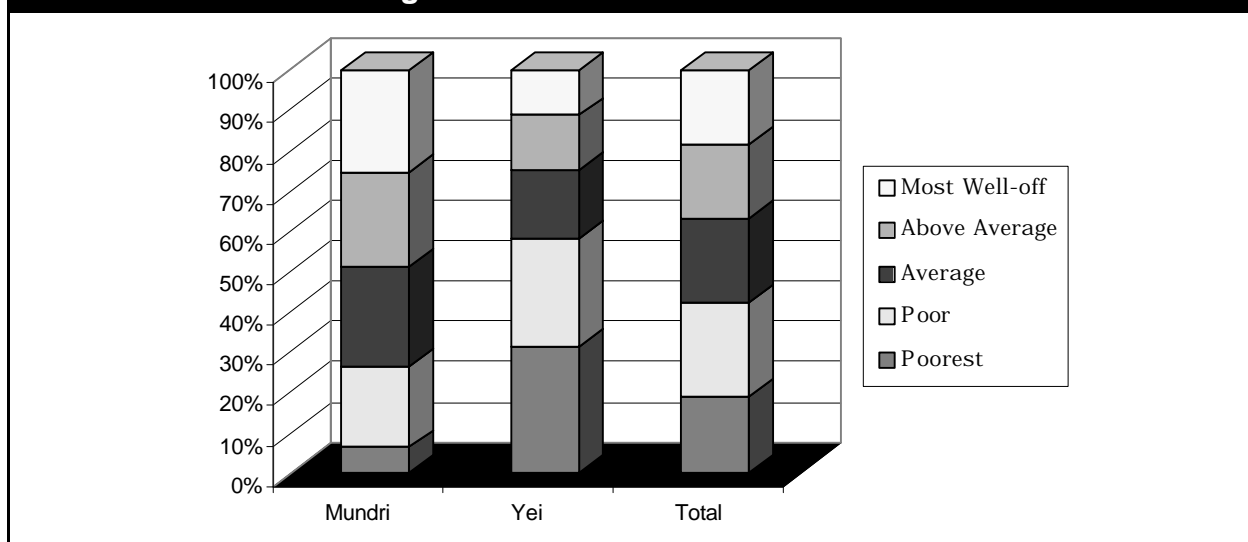
Table 4.3: Aggregate Wealth Trends

County	Number of Respondents	Mean	Standard Deviation
Mundri	300	12.5	3.46
Yei	300	9.7	4.18

Table 4.4: Social Economic Index *

	Mundri (n=300)	Yei (n=300)	Total (n=600)
Wealth Group	%	%	%
Lowest Quintile (Poorest)	6.3	31.3	18.8
2 nd Quintile	20.3	27.0	23.7
3 rd Quintile	24.7	16.7	20.7
4 th Quintile	23.3	13.7	18.5
5 th Quintile (Most well-off)	25.5	11.3	18.3

* Grouped and standardized against the total Household Wealth Index for the two counties.

Figure 4.2: Social Economic Index

the lowest two quintiles. This indicates that Yei has a higher proportion of poorer households than Mundri.

4.2 HOUSING CHARACTERISTICS

Walls of main house

Housing in the region is temporary in nature. Most of the houses have wood and wattle walls, and the roofs are thatched grass. The proliferation of unbaked bricks for walls of housing is apparently a more recent phenomenon. Even existing institutional buildings are thatched with grass, though some of the buildings in these centers are made of baked bricks. The colonial buildings that were made of more permanent materials have largely been a target of high altitude bombing and war destruction. The conflict has also dissuaded

private enterprises from establishing permanent locations.

Most of the houses in Yei (95%) and Mundri (94%) were constructed using mud and wattle. In Yei, however, some of the houses (4%) were made of unbaked bricks while in Mundri nearly 5% of the houses had wooden walls.

4.2.1 Resources from Natural Environment

Sources of water

In general most of the households in the region rely on water from unsafe sources (shallow wells, river/stream, dams, ponds, swamp or surface). In Mundri, almost 95% of the households were dependent on an unsafe source of water. Only 5% of the households in Mundri had protected water sources (boreholes and protected springs). In Yei 29% of the households were using water from protected sources.

Source of lighting

Most of the households in the region (63% in Mundri and 51% in Yei) have no lighting at night. The main source of lighting for the few households that are lit at night is firewood in Mundri and kerosene lamps in Yei.

Toilet facilities

Sanitation in the region is very poor. Only 47% of the households in Mundri have any form of toilet coverage with 43% of the households in the county having their own pit latrines and 4% relying on communal pit latrines. The remaining 53% of the households do not have any sewage disposal facilities.

Table 4.5: Basic Housing Characteristics (in Percent)		
	Mundri (n=300)	Yei (n=300)
Materials of house walls		
Mud	94.0	95.0
Unbaked bricks	0.3	4.3
Baked bricks	0.7	0.7
Iron sheets	0.3	0
Wood	4.7	0
Main sources of water for household		
Borehole	5.3	19.7
Protected spring	0	8.3
Shallow well	45.3	45.0
River/stream	1.3	1.3
Dam	46.0	24.3
Pond/swamp/surface	2.0	1.0
Main source of lighting		
Firewood	22.0	2.3
Candles	0	0.3
Paraffin/kerosene lamp	0	1.7
Wicker lamp	0	41.3
Electric (petrol/diesel powered)	14.7	3.0
None	63.3	51.3
Type of toilet facility		
Communal pit latrine	3.7	7.7
Own pit latrine	42.7	51.3
Other	0.3	0.3
None	53.3	40.7

In Yei, latrine coverage was only slightly better than in Mundri. Fifty-nine percent of the households in Yei County had access to pit latrines with 51% of the households relying on their own pit latrines and 8% accessing communal pit latrines.

4.3 EDUCATION

Education for women provides opportunities for economic, cultural and political progress (AWID, 2002). Women's education has long been established to have profound implications for the status of individuals, their households and communities. For the women, there is hardly any aspect of development attainment that will not be facilitated or initiated by education. From fertility to economic empowerment, to the realization of their rights and access to natural and cultural resources, education plays an integral part in women's development. By the early 1980s, the linkage between education and the age of marriage had been established. Family size preferences and the use of birth control are associated with the education of both women and men. Parental education may, in fact, be closely related to the chances of child survival.

4.3.1 Respondents' Education

In general, education levels for both men and women in Mundri and Yei are low. Less than two-thirds of the respondents had attended school. Forty-three percent had attained some primary education. There were significant gender differentials in education attainment for both counties. In Mundri, while only 47% of the women had been to school, 76% of their male counterparts had some education. Likewise in Yei, only 58% of the female respondents had attended school, whereas 78% of the men had some schooling.

4.3.2 Education and Gender

Among the currently married women in Mundri 79% had husbands who had attended a school and only 21% had husbands who had never been to school (Table 4.6).

Table 4.6: Gender and Education

Spouse's Education	Mundri (n=98)	Yei (n=163)
<u>Wives' responses</u>	%	%
Husband had been to school	78.6	84.0
Husband not educated	21.4	16.0
<u>Husbands' responses</u>	(n=118)	(n=81)
Wife had been to school	29.7	46.9
Wife not educated	70.3	53.1

However, less than one-third (30%) of the married men in Mundri had wives who had attended school. Some 70% of the male respondents in Mundri were married to women who had never been to school. In Yei more men and women were married to spouses who had some education than those in Mundri.

Even with regard to attendance of non-formal education courses, men in both Mundri and Yei were more educated than women. However the demand for adult literacy education, especially for women, is high as indicated in the following extract from a group discussion:

If men with gray hair can go to school, why not women? We need education to firmly stand and chal-

lenge the men. If women are educated, many things can go right, like caring for the families, and we can always be ready to do much more.

An analysis of the household membership characteristics indicated that in Mundri 44% of the males and nearly half of all the females younger than 20 did not have any formal education (Table 4.7). Among those in Mundri older than 20, 23% of the males and 63% of the females did not have any formal education. Yei had better education attainment for both males and females.

4.3.3 Education Status of Age Group 20 and Older

It is important to note that for the population older than 20, there is higher education attainment, especially among the males. This phenomenon can be attributed to the ravaging effect of the war on education services in the area.

Group discussions indicate that the lack of education facilities near the home has caused children to start schooling late. As indicated in the following extract, this is often to the detriment of girls' education:

Table 4.7: Household Education Status and Gender of Household Members

	Mundri				Yei			
<=20	Males	%	Females	%	Males	%	Females	%
None	279	44.3	330	49.3	209	33.6	274	46.8
Nursery	18	2.9	21	3.1	13	2.1	29	5.0
Primary	316	50.2	310	46.3	259	41.6	182	31.1
Junior	2	0.3	2	0.3	115	18.5	95	16.2
Secondary	15	2.4	5	0.7	14	2.3	3	0.5
University	0	0	1	0.1	12	1.9	2	0.3
Graduate	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Total	630	100.0	669	100.0	622	100.0	585	100.0
<u>>20 years</u>								
None	98	22.5	336	62.5	55	17.3	176	49.0
Nursery	1	0.2	3	0.6	0	0	2	0.6
Primary	222	50.9	151	28.1	109	34.3	95	26.5
Junior	42	9.6	27	5.0	69	21.7	64	17.8
Secondary	65	14.9	18	3.3	51	16.0	15	4.2
University	1	0.2	2	0.4	30	9.4	6	1.7
Graduate	7	1.6	1	0.2	4	1.3	1	0.3
Total	436	100.0	538	100.0	318	100.0	359	100.0

Julian is a widow with young grandchildren. She attributes her lack of an education to a headmistress. Despite her excellent performance, she was chased out of the school due to claims that she was too old. It all started when she developed breasts at the age of 12. Since then she never had the chance of attending school again, but even at her age she can read English and the local language very well and she helps organize the women in her local church.

4.3.4 Education Status of Those 15 and Younger

239 out of 300 respondents in Mundri and 225 out of 300 respondents in Yei indicated that they had children of school-going age (6-15 years old). In Mundri, 66% of the male children were in school, compared to 60% of their female counterparts. In Yei, 84% of the male children 6-15 years old were in school compared to 73% of the females (Table 4.8).

For the girls in Mundri, the distance from school (36%), lack of money for fees (14%), the need for them to work at home (10%), and lack of security (7%) were reported as the leading reasons for failure to enroll in school. The reasons for male children to drop out/fail to enroll in Mundri were the distance from the school (41%), ill health (11%) and lack of money for tuition (9%) (Table 4.9).

In Yei, distance from schools (34%), lack of money for fees (18%), and lack of interest (9%) were the main bottlenecks to girls' enrollment and continuance in school. Distance from school (43%), lack of money for fees (19%) lack of interest (10%) and lack of security (8%) were the most frequently reported reasons for failure of boys to attend school.

Table 4.8: Enrollment of 6-15 Year Olds by Gender

Enrollment Status	Mundri		Yei	
	Male (n=304) %	Female (n=366) %	Male (n=345) %	Female (n=287) %
In school	65.5	59.8	83.8	72.5
Out of school	34.5	40.2	16.2	27.5

Table 4.9: Causes of School Absence by Gender

Reasons for non-attendance	Mundri		Yei	
	Female (n=141) %	Male (n=102) %	Female (n=67) %	Male (n=67) %
Distance from school	36.2	41.2	33.8	43.3
Lack of money to pay fees	14.2	8.8	18.2	19.4
Needed to work at home	9.9	5.9	2.6	3.0
Security	7.1	3.9	5.2	7.5
Lack of interest	5.7	2.0	9.1	10.4
Personal illness/Sick family member	5.7	10.8	6.5	1.5
Death in family	1.4	2.9	1.3	0
Difficulties with schooling/Expelled	0.7	2.0	6.5	1.5
Marriage/Pregnancy	0.7	0	0	1.5
Other	18.4	21.6	16.9	11.9

4.3.5 Access to Education Services

The distance to the nearest education facility has strong implications for attendance and can have important gender implications where distances to education facilities are great. All respondents were asked to state the distance to the nearest education facility. With regard to pre-primary schooling, only 38% of the respondents in Mundri and Yei reported knowledge of the nearest kindergarten and the estimated distance to the facility. The average distance to the nearest kindergarten was 4.2 miles in Mundri and 2.6 miles in Yei (Table 4.10). For kindergarten to be considered accessible, a walking distance of a mile would be considered the maximum limit. In Mundri 31% of the households interviewed were within one mile of a kindergarten while in Yei 20% were within the same one mile radius of a kindergarten.

The maximum distance to the nearest primary school was 50 miles. For both counties the average distance to the nearest primary school was not significantly different (3.2 miles for Yei and 3.3 miles for Mundri). In Mundri 15% and in Yei 14% of the households were within three miles of the nearest primary school. This implies that on account of distance about 85% of the households in both Yei and Mundri are inaccessible to primary schools unless boarding facilities are available at the primary schools.

The two counties exhibited differences with regard to accessibility to secondary schooling facilities. Whereas in Mundri an average distance to the nearest secondary school was 21.3 miles, in Yei the average distance was 14.2 miles. It is important to note that even in Yei, the distance to the nearest secondary school would prohibit many students from attending, unless the education institution had boarding facilities. For boys, a commuting distance of about seven miles is

feasible and would permit about 40% of the households in Mundri and about 45% of the households in Yei to access secondary education. For the girls, such a distance would make it difficult to attend. This is on account of the potential for sexual harassment along the way and the relatively higher opportunity cost of their schooling.

4.4 RELIGION AND ETHNICITY

According to a 2001 Human Rights Watch Report on women's rights, many governments remain unyielding in their resistance to reform personal status laws that discriminate against women, justifying their inaction as necessary for preserving their societies' morals, unity, religion, culture, and tradition. Religion, ethnicity and cultures can thus become barriers to changes in laws and the betterment of women's status.

There was a significant difference in the religious distribution of respondents by county and gender. Members of the Episcopal Church formed the predominant religion both in Yei and Mundri with 70% of the respondents belonging to the church (Figure 4.3). Catholics comprise about one-fifth (19%) of the total respondents, while Pentecostals made up 8%, and 3% were Presbyterian, SDA and Lutherans, combined. There were more Catholics in Yei County (females 28% and males 32%) than in Mundri County. In Mundri over 85% of the respondents were members of the Episcopal Church.

In Mundri the predominant ethnic group is the Muro which make up over 88% of the respondents. In Yei, the Kakwa and Pojulu were the leading ethnic groups.

Table 4.10: Distance to Nearest Educational Facility (in Miles)

Distance to nearest...	# of respondents	%	Max. Distance	Mean Distance			Std. Dev.
				Yei	Mundri	Total	
Kindergarten	229	38	39	2.6	4.2	3.4	4.3
Primary school	564	94	50	3.2	3.3	3.2	3.07
Secondary school	433	72	85	14.2	21.3	17.9	18.54

4.5 ACCESS TO COMMUNITY MEETING CENTERS

Meeting places serve as centers of community transformation. They act as adult education and functional literacy centers, mass information centers, and centers for immunization programs, and they sometimes

evolve into townships. The population in Yei has easier access to community facilities than in Mundri (Table 4.11). Many non-governmental and government officials use such facilities as “outpost offices” where they interact with the communities.

The average distance to community meeting centers is three miles in Yei and four miles in Mundri. Payam

Figure 4.3: Religion of Respondents in Mundri and Yei

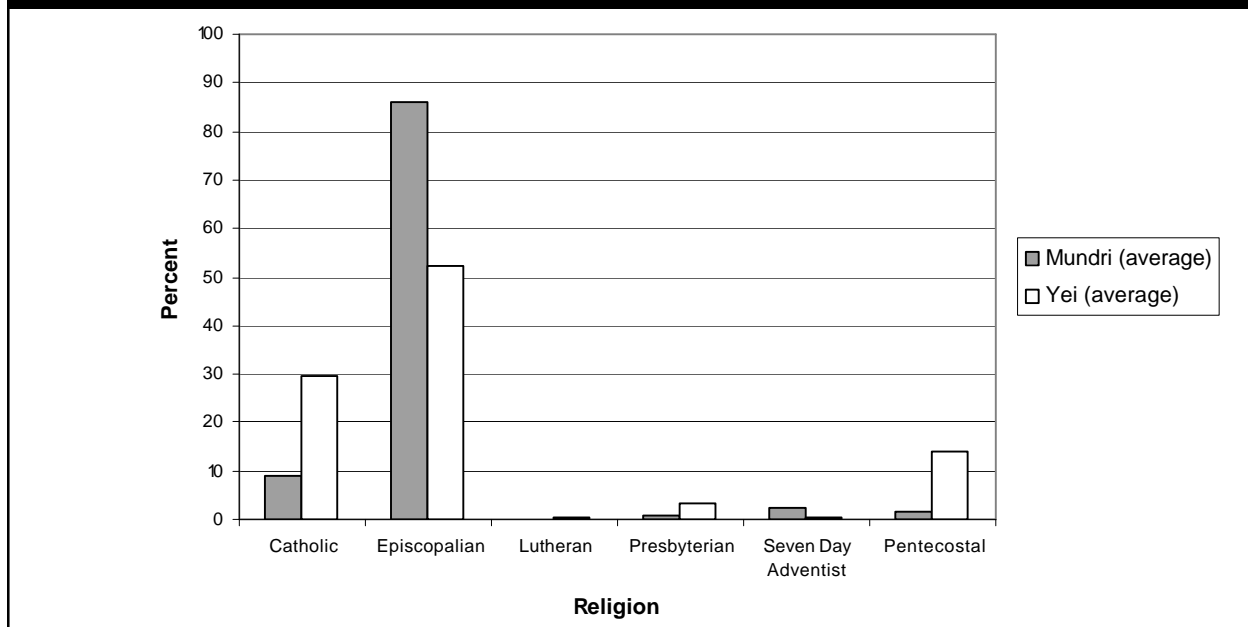


Figure 4.4: Ethnicity of Respondents in Mundri and Yei

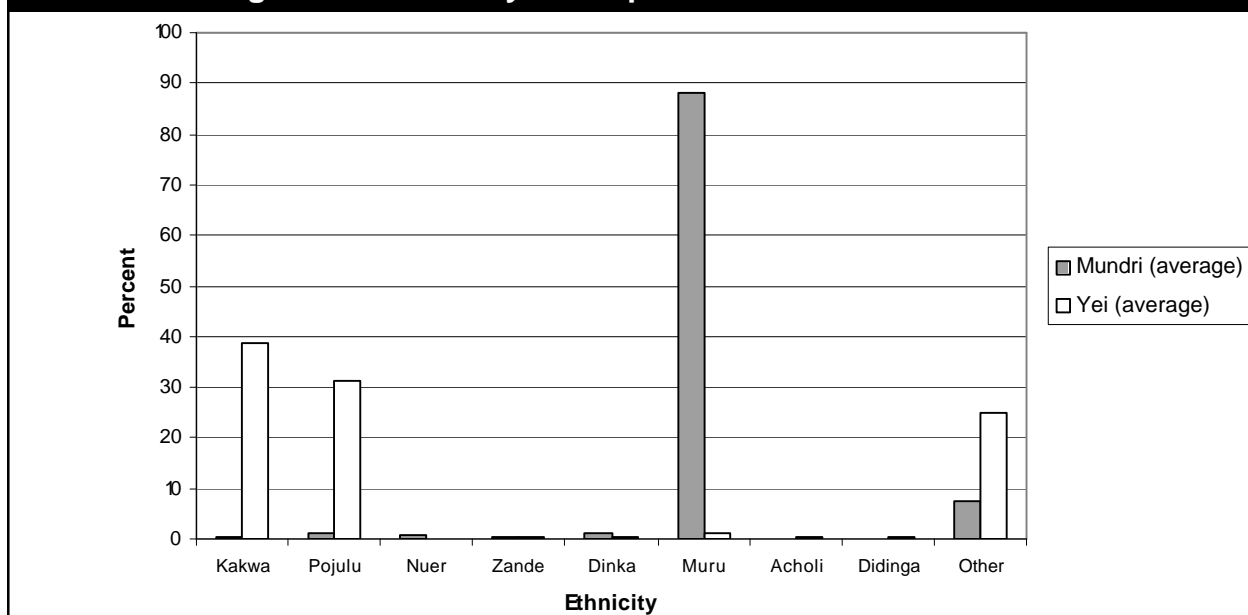


Table 4.11: Distance to Nearest Community Facility (in Miles)

Distance to the nearest...	# of respondents	%	Max.	Mean			Std. Dev.
				Yei	Mundri	Total	
Community/meeting center	482	80	54	3.0	4.4	3.8	5.69
NGO office	321	54	84	7.9	20.7	16.5	16.87
Payam Administration	561	94	91	6.2	12.3	12.7	11.75
Court	555	93	91	4.0	5.7	4.9	7.69

administration offices are at an average distance of six miles in Yei and 12 miles in Mundri, and courts are at an average distance of four miles and six miles in Yei and Mundri, respectively.

This distance to community and administrative centers is great. For communities that are located beyond the average, attendance, especially for women, at activities held in community centers will require that less time be committed to household or income earning activities. In Mundri, for instance, an average distance of 12 miles to the payam administration centers implies that for the majority of the population, civil activities can only be attended by men. Moreover, given the poor road network in the region even men would have difficulties in accessing the payam headquarters during the wet seasons.

4.6 ACCESS TO COMMERCIAL CENTERS

Commercial service points are important in transforming rural economies from subsistence to monetary levels. They form the main outlets for agrarian production and, as such, provide the first points of access to farming inputs as well as basic needs of the household. Table 4.12 and Figure 4.5 indicate that commercial service points (markets, shops, grinding mills, credit institutions, etc.) were much further for most respondents in Mundri than in Yei.

The figure above indicates that in both Mundri and Yei the distance to the nearest service facilities is simply too great for the majority of the population to be regu-

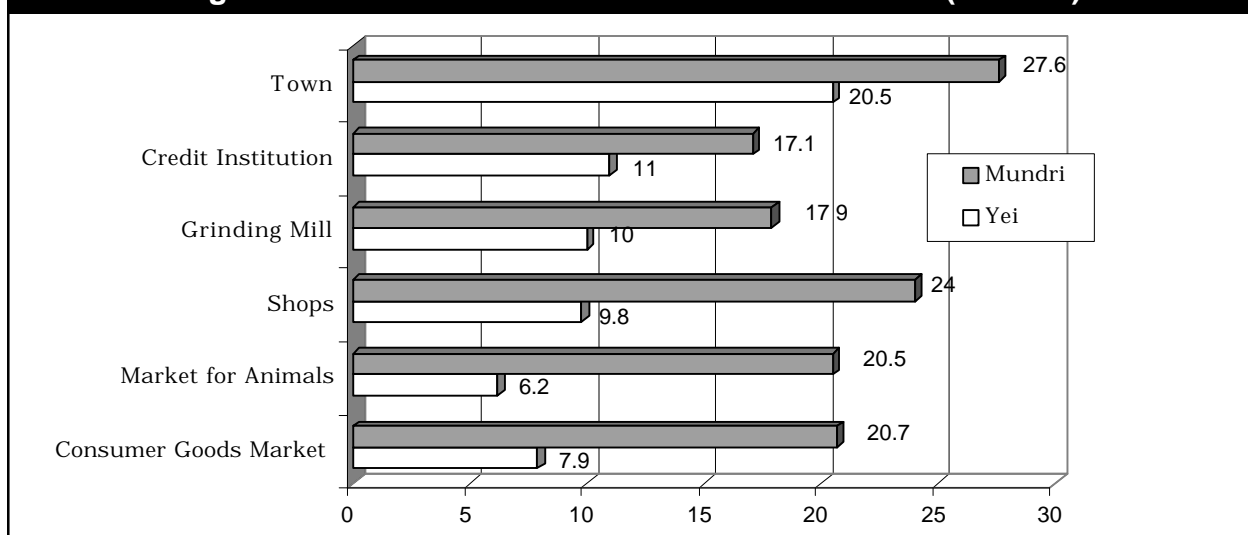
Figure 4.5: Distance to Commercial Service Points (in Miles)

Table 4.12: Distance to Nearest Commercial Facility (in Miles)

Distance to the nearest...	Number of respondents	%	Max.	Mean			Std. Dev.
				Yei	Mundri	Mean	
Market for small household items	553	92	84	7.9	20.7	14.2	16.5
Market for selling animals	483	81	84	6.2	20.5	13.7	16.5
Shops/trading centers	495	83	84	9.8	24.0	17.2	17.6
Grinding mill	334	56	84	10.0	17.9	14.1	15.5
Credit institution	52	9	68	11.0	17.1	13.5	15.5
Town	510	85	95	20.5	27.6	24.3	20.3
Source of motorized transport	284	47	84	8.0	21.2	14.2	17.1
River transport	160	27	84	31.5	16.6	16.0	15.6
Main (trunk) road	496	83	68	5.3	13.1	9.3	13.7
Radio call or mail delivery	161	27	84	10.0	17.1	15.2	17.1

lar users of these facilities. For instance, it is not sensible for women to travel an average distance of 18 miles to the nearest grinding mill in Mundri or 10 miles in Yei. Since the grinding of grain is usually a task carried out by women, travelling this distance to a grinding mill would decrease the amount of time left to complete other household tasks.

Access to Markets

The average distance to the nearest market for animals in Mundri is 20 miles. This distance makes the sale of animals by women at competitive prices out of the question, unless they have husbands or other male household members to do this on their behalf. This in effect disempowers them from controlling the entire sale process, even if culturally they were permitted to have control of the proceeds from the sale of animals.

Road Transport

Road transport in many parts of southern Sudan is poor, though road conditions differ from place to place. The households in Yei, which average a distance of eight miles to the nearest source of motorized transport, have relatively easier access to roads and mo-

torized transport than in Mundri, where the average distance is 21 miles. However, even in Yei the distances are too far apart for regular and emergency use. Moreover most of the roads in the region are only passable during the dry season, and even then, only with the use of a four wheel-drive, off-road vehicle.

Sudanese Women and the Information Age

There are societal and structural challenges to ushering the women of southern Sudan into the information age. There is no electricity in the region except on the compounds of a few non-governmental organizations and individuals who have small generators for their homes. In addition, the low levels of education for both men and women in southern Sudan make access to information technology (IT) a remote possibility.

Only 27% of the respondents had any knowledge of where to access a postal service or radio call. The average reported distance to access postal service or radios was 17 miles in Mundri and 10 miles in Yei. Thus not only is IT accessibility literally impossible, but even postal services and radio calls are inaccessible to the general population.

5. Women's Status

5.1 WOMEN'S ECONOMIC ACTIVITIES

According to AWID (2002) women around the world still have to reconcile the responsibilities of family and work. They also take on different jobs and occupations than men, most often at a lower status. Women have always engaged in less formal types of work, such as taking on unpaid work in a family business, or working in the informal sector or attending to various types of household economic activities. AWID, however, notes that in many regions, including Africa, women's self-employment in non-agricultural activities, such as petty trading, service repairs, transport, and small manufacturing, is on the rise.

All respondents in the survey (both male and female) were asked about the most important economic activity that women performed in their households. There were significant differences between Mundri and Yei with regard to the most important economic activities for women. The most important economic activity for women was cultivation in both Mundri (53%) and Yei (42%). However, in Yei 29% of the women cited the brewing and selling of beer as their leading source of income, whereas only 16% of the women in Mundri

were undertaking the same occupation. The proportion of women in petty trade was small for both Mundri (18%) and Yei (14%). The range of sources of incomes for women was also limited.

A total of 371 (62%) women in Yei and Mundri combined had obtained money from their activities in the year prior to the survey (Table 5.2). In Mundri the proportion of women who had obtained money was 60% and they had on average received US\$ 43,900 (approximately \$23). Overall only 44 women (15%) interviewed in Mundri had saved any money and among these the average amount saved was US\$ 28,700 (approximately \$15).

Table 5.3 indicates that in Mundri most household resources are spent on the purchase of food followed by transport (for the few who travel) and socialization. Education of children comes fourth in terms of highest expenditures. In Yei, the education of children is the lead item of expenditure followed by income generating activities and socialization.

In sum, the majority of women in Mundri and Yei are engaged in low paying occupations, such as farming. There is also an increase in the number of women who are engaged in brewing and petty trade, which provides a potential for the improvement of women's status. It is also important to note that activities such as micro-savings operations among women in southern Sudan have a good basis since there is already an entrepreneurial spirit among these women.

Table 5.1: Most Important Economic Activities for Women

Economic Activity	Mundri (n=280) %	Yei (n=267) %
Housework	0.7	5.6
Cultivation	52.5	41.6
Poultry/Animal husbandry	1.1	0.7
Livestock products	1.1	1.5
Petty Trade	17.9	14.2
Handicrafts	2.1	0.7
Labor	2.5	4.1
Brewing/Selling Brew	15.7	28.8
Others	6.4	2.6

5.2 GENDER AND PRODUCTIVITY

An activity time line indicating the utilization of time by each respondent from the time of waking to the time of going to bed was designed and became part of the questionnaire used in the study. Table 5.4 indicates the average number of hours and the proportion

Table 5.2: Money Obtained and Saved a Year Prior to the Study (in US\$)

County		# of respondents	Maximum	Minimum	Mean	Std. Dev.
Mundri	Money obtained	180	1,000,000	2	43,901	110,904
	Money saved	44	300,000	300	28,770	65,799
Yei	Money obtained	191	300,000	200	19,203	38,837
	Money saved	70	100,000	500	14,550	21,691

of men and women who indicated that they participated in each of the activities listed.

The proportion of men participating in most of the domestic and production activities is very low. For instance, only 8% of the men reported that they contributed to the care of the children, sick, or elderly and 9% helped in the preparation of food. Fifty-one percent of the women cared for the children, sick, or elderly, and 56% helped in the preparation of food. The survey has shown that in all the productive ventures, women's contributions were higher than those of men except for trade, employment outside the home and home repairs.

As earlier indicated, trade plays a central role in the Sudanese economy. One of the most productive activities on which men and women spend their time is trade, with an average of 4.5 hours for women and 6.7 hours for men (Table 5.4).

There were wide variations between men and women with regard to the way they spend their time. While on average women spent five hours per day on subsistence and cash production, men spent eight hours on these activities (Table 5.5). On the other hand men have on average 1.5 hours more rest time than the

women. It is important to note that the average time indicated for both men and women in terms of subsistence production, domestic duties and leisure/sleep only refers to those people who actually participated in these activities. As noted above, men's participation in productive ventures as well as domestic work is very low.

5.3 GENDER AND CONTROL OF FARM PRODUCE

5.3.1 Ownership of Animals

The ownership of livestock in the two counties is indicated in Table 5.6. Twice as many households in Mundri owned cattle when compared to Yei. While in Mundri about 22% of the households owned cattle, only 10% of the households in Yei owned cattle.

Goats were more commonly owned in both Yei and Mundri. However, more farmers in Yei (67%) owned goats when compared to those in Mundri (44%).

Ownership of poultry was more common among households in Mundri which averaged 12 chickens

Table 5.3: Expenditure on Household Needs in the Year Prior to Survey (in US\$)

Expenditure Item	Mundri		Yei	
	Number of respondents	Mean	Number of respondents	Mean
Food Purchase	169	42,654	203	9,878
Education of Children	185	18,052	94	23,204
Government/Religious Taxes	214	8,024	92	4,828
Medical Bills	211	13,934	122	8,259
Socialization	82	22,306	79	10,251
Farm Implements/Income Generating Activity	98	18,617	37	12,714
Transportation	32	28,559	25	7,456
Investment	11	121,273	17	21,100
Other Activities	3	34,250	18	6,033

Table 5.4: Distribution of Time Spent on Activities by Gender

Activities on which time is spent	Female		Male	
	Number of respondents	Mean Hours	Number of respondents	Mean Hours
Fetching water for domestic use	260	1.2	32	1.2
Fetching firewood for domestic use	116	0.9	27	0.9
Preparing food	202	1.3	21	1.5
Other domestic duties	324	3.2	41	2.8
Care for children, spouse, the sick, elderly	185	1.2	19	1.0
Home construction, repair and maintenance	19	1.8	40	4.2
Trade activities	232	4.5	159	6.7
Helping with subsistence production	64	3.3	46	4.5
Employment outside the family	33	4.8	35	4.9
In transit to and from work	85	1.4	67	1.6
In transit to and from laboring for food	120	1.4	74	1.7
Personal care	358	2.5	234	2.8
Social and recreational	328	2.5	223	3.4
Rest/sleep	359	8.8	234	9.0

Table 5.5: Distribution of Time Spent on Activities

Activities on which time is spent	Female		Male	
	Number of respondents	Mean Hours	Number of respondents	Mean Hours
Leisure and sleep	363	13.5	236	15.0
Domestic duties	363	5.5	236	1.0
Subsistence and cash production	363	5.0	236	8.0

per household, while those in Yei averaged eight. Other types of livestock (sheep, pigs and rabbits) were not as common.

5.3.2 Sale of Animals

As indicated in Tables 5.6 and 5.7 there are very few households that sell domestic animals. In Mundri, while 65 of the households owned cattle, only 37% of these were reportedly selling cattle to obtain money. Of all the domestic stock, the most frequently sold were chickens, followed by goats. Overall, households in Mundri were more commercially oriented in raising livestock than those in Yei. The proportion of Mundri households that sold domestic animals was higher than those in Yei.

As indicated in Table 5.8, more men than women controlled the proceeds of cattle and goats in both Mundri and Yei. The proportion of women controlling the pro-

ceeds from chicken sales was slightly higher than that of men in both Yei and Mundri.

5.3.3 Production and Sale of Crops

According to Table 5.9, the crop produced by most households in Mundri was sorghum. Ninety-five percent of the households in the county produced sorghum. Other frequently produced crops in Mundri included maize, cassava, honey and bee products, mangoes, sweet potatoes, simsim and millet. In terms of acreage, the crops that occupied the largest average amount of land (in feddans) were coffee, bananas, yams, and sweet potatoes. Products such as honey and mangoes were collected off-farm (Table 5.9).

In Yei the most frequently produced crops were sorghum, cassava, maize, simsim, millet and bananas. In terms of acreage, the crops that occupied the largest average amount of land (in feddans) were sweet

Table: 5.6: Ownership of Domestic Animals by Household

Ownership of domestic animals	Mundri		Yei	
	Number of respondents	Mean	Number of respondents	Mean
Cattle	65	13	29	6
Goats	133	9	230	8
Chicken	264	12	233	8
Sheep	21	6	34	4
Horses	0	0	1	2
Pigs	0	0	2	4
Doves/pigeons/rabbits	2	5	5	6

Table 5.7: Ownership and Sale of Domestic Animals

Domestic Animal Owned	Mundri			Yei		
	Number Owned	Number Sold	Percent of households that sell	Number Owned	Number Sold	Percent of households that sell
Cattle	65	24	37	29	7	24
Goats	133	55	41	230	81	35
Sheep	21	5	24	34	7	21
Chickens	264	136	52	233	87	37
Pigs	0	0	0	2	1	50
Doves/pigeons/rabbits	2	1	50	5	1	20

potatoes, bananas, oil-palm, sunflowers, beans, simsim and millet (Table 5.9).

Generally more households in Mundri than Yei sell farm produce (Table 5.10). The produce sold most frequently by households in Mundri include bee products (49%), sorghum (33%) and cassava (33%). In Yei, cassava (30%), sorghum (24%) and simsim (21%) were the most frequently sold farm products.

5.3.4 Responsibility of Proceeds from Sale of Farm Produce

As indicated in Table 5.11, women in both Mundri and Yei Counties combined generally had greater control of the sale of farm produce. In 16 of the 18 farm produce categories listed, women controlled the proceeds from the sales. In only two categories (soy beans and honey) were the men more apt to control the sales of produce.

5.4 ALTERNATIVE ACTIVITIES

In Mundri, 63% of the women and 66% of the men wished to have activities other than the ones in which they were engaged at the time of the survey. In Yei, for both males and females the proportion of those who wished to engage in activities other than those in which they were involved at the time of the survey was 68%.

Among those in Mundri who indicated that they preferred another activity, most stated that they would prefer cultivation (30%) followed by trade (16%). Their counterparts in Yei indicated a preference for the same activities but in reverse order: 30% preferred trade and 20% preferred cultivation. The implication of this is that both agriculture and trade are perceived as critical activities in making economic improvements in the lives of the population of the Equatoria region. Hence there is a need for creating an enabling envi-

Table 5.8: Who Controls Proceeds from Sale of Domestic Animals (in Percent)

Controller of sale proceeds	Cattle		Goats		Chickens	
	Mundri (n=26)	Yei (n=12)	Mundri (n=60)	Yei (n=103)	Mundri (n=139)	Yei (n=104)
Female (self/spouse)	38.5	33.3	30.0	33.0	43.9	52.9
Mother only	--	--	--	1.0	2.9	1.9
Sister	--	--	--	--	0.7	--
Other female relative	--	--	3.3	--	1.4	--
Total female	38.5	33.3	33.3	34	48.9	54.8
Male (self/spouse)	42.3	33.3	53.3	57.3	39.6	35.6
Son	7.7	--	5.0	2.9	4.3	1.9
Father only	7.7	8.3	6.7	1.0	0.7	--
Other male relative	--	8.3	--	1.0	0.7	1.0
Brother	--	--	--	--	0.7	--
Total Male	57.7	49.9	65	62.2	46	38.5
Father/mother	3.8	16.7	--	1.0	2.2	1.0
Other	--	--	1.7	2.9	1.4	5.8

Table 5.9: Households Producing Commodity and Average Land Size for Production

Type of Produce	Mundri			Yei		
	Number of households with good	Percent of households with good	Mean land size (feddans)	Number of households with good	Percent of households with good	Mean land size (feddans)
Sorghum	285	95.0	2.6	185	61.7	3.1
Maize	224	74.7	3.4	158	52.7	3.4
Cassava	221	73.7	2.9	164	54.7	3.0
Honey and wax	183	61.0	21.1	31	10.3	16.8
Mangoes	180	60.0	8.9	77	25.7	5.1
Sweet potatoes	151	50.3	4.3	79	26.3	4.2
Simsim	151	50.3	2.9	132	44.0	3.5
Millet	112	37.3	3.1	120	40.0	3.5
Vegetables	83	27.7	4.0	48	16.0	3.0
Bananas	69	23.0	6.7	101	33.7	4.0
Grain	69	23.0	3.6	26	8.7	3.0
Beans	21	7.0	3.7	55	18.3	3.9
Green gram	20	6.7	3.9	17	5.7	3.3
Kpangu	19	6.3	3.5	82	27.3	2.2
Yams	15	5.0	6.5	59	19.7	1.8
Coffee	8	2.7	7.5	32	10.7	2.3
Passion fruit	6	2.0	2.8	34	11.3	3.1
Soybeans	5	1.7	4.2	6	2.0	3.0
Sunflower	3	1.0	4.0	1	0.3	4.0
Oil palms	1	0.3	3.0	1	0.3	4.0
Others	8	2.7	7.6	23	7.7	4.7

Table 5.10: Types of Farm Produce Sold

Type of Produce	Mundri		Yei	
	Amount	Percent	Amount	Percent
Bees and products	148	49.3	29	9.7
Sorghum	98	32.7	71	23.7
Cassava	98	32.7	90	30.0
Simsim	45	15.0	63	21.0
Maize	41	13.7	55	18.3
Mangoes	40	13.3	14	4.7
Sweet potatoes	26	8.7	12	4.0
Bananas	26	8.7	58	19.3
Vegetables	18	6.0	16	5.3
Millet	17	5.7	38	12.7
Grain	10	3.3	5	1.7
Green gram	5	1.7	6	2.0
Kpangu	5	1.7	25	8.3
Beans	4	1.3	23	7.7
Coffee	3	1.0	25	8.3
Yams	2	0.7	30	10.0
Soybeans	2	0.7	3	1.0
Passion fruit	--	0	17	5.7

Table 5.11: Control of Proceeds from Sale of Farm Produce by Gender

Farm produce	Male Controlled Sales	Female Controlled Sales	Total Households Selling	% Male Controlled Sales	% Female Controlled Sales
Oil from palms	1	9	10	10.0	90.0
Yams	4	30	34	11.8	88.2
Beans	6	22	28	21.4	78.6
Grain	3	10	13	23.1	76.9
Kpangu	10	23	33	30.3	69.7
Bananas	21	46	67	31.3	68.7
Sorghum	50	97	147	34.0	66.0
Millet	17	33	50	34.0	66.0
Sweet potatoes	14	27	41	34.1	65.9
Maize	29	55	84	34.5	65.5
Passion fruit	5	9	14	35.7	64.3
Green gram	3	5	8	37.5	62.5
Cassava	61	87	148	41.2	58.8
Coffee	7	9	16	43.8	56.3
Simsim	38	48	86	44.2	55.8
Vegetables	21	24	45	46.7	53.3
Soya bean	3	2	5	60.0	40.0
Honey	82	46	128	64.1	35.9

ronment such as in transport and agricultural inputs to exploit the existing potential in the area.

The proportion of women who have undertaken some training or attended courses in income generating activities was low. Only 14% of the women and 18% of the men in Mundri had ever attended training at the time of the survey. In Yei the proportion of men who had attended training was 20%, much higher than that of women at 8%.

5.5 GENDER AND PARTICIPATION

There were gender differences in the participation of different activities, both in terms of numbers and proportions of participants, as well as the average duration of time spent on the different activities.

In nearly all domestic chores (fetching water and firewood, preparing food, caring for the children, and taking on other domestic activities), there was a greater number of women than men who participated in these activities. Even in trade activities, women in New Sudan have a strong showing, with 64% indicating that they had participated in trade activities, spending on average nine hours a day on the activity. Table

5.12 indicates that there is a very low participation level for men in all activities except trade.

5.6 GENDER ATTITUDES AND PRACTICES

Parental attitudes and perceptions regarding the opportunity cost of children's education may be factors behind gender differentials in enrollment and continuance in school. There was no significant difference between male and female respondents with regard to their attitudes towards the importance of boys' and girls' education. About 90% of both men and women believed it was equally important for girls as well as boys to get an education. While one-third of both male and female respondents held the view that boys are more intelligent than girls, 15% of the men and 17% of the women were of the view that girls are more intelligent than boys (Table 5.13).

Sixty-three percent of the men were of the view that girls do more housework than boys, and 71% of the women shared this belief. Both men and women believed that more boys than girls work on the farm and attend to cattle. Both men and women expected the boys to provide more financial help than the girls.

Table 5.12: Gender and Participation in Day-to-Day Activities

Activity	Female		Male	
	# of respondents	Mean # of Hours	# of respondents	Mean # of Hours
Fetching water for domestic use	260	2.5	32	2.4
Fetching firewood	116	1.8	27	1.9
Preparing food	202	2.6	21	3.0
Care for children, spouse, sick, elderly	185	2.3	19	2.0
Other domestic duties	324	6.4	41	5.6
Trade activities	232	9.1	159	13.3
Home construction, repair and maintenance	19	3.7	40	8.4
Helping with subsistence production	64	6.6	46	8.9
Labor for food	33	9.6	35	9.8
Employment outside the family	85	2.8	67	3.3
In transit to and from work	120	2.9	74	3.4
Personal care	358	5.1	234	5.5
Social and recreational	328	5.0	223	6.9
Rest/sleep	359	17.6	234	18.0

5.7 SEXUAL ABUSE AND FORCED MARRIAGE

Mundri has a relatively higher rate of abuse and violence against women and girls than Yei. Eight percent of the female respondents in Mundri had experienced rape compared to 4% in Yei (Table 5.14). Eight percent of the female respondents in Mundri and 7% of those in Yei reported that they had daughters who had been raped, and 12% of the female respondents in Mundri and 11% in Yei had knowledge of a relative who had been raped. The actual number of women and girls who have experienced this form of abuse may be higher, as rape has a very serious social stigma and many prefer not to report it.

Many cases of rape and abuse occurred in both Mundri and Yei in 2002. During that time, large numbers of soldiers from the front line went on a rampage from Torit through Nimule, Kajo Keji, Yei and Mundri to Yambio and Bahr-el-Ghazal. The numerous suicides and miscarriages in Yei were possibly a result of failure to cope with the trauma and social stigma of rape.

Cases of sexual child abuse were also common, especially in Yei. According to the survey, 13% of female children in Mundri were defiled and 6% were victims of molestation. This was confirmed by data from the Court in Yei County, where cases of defilement, rape, child abduction, and adultery are rather high.

Some of the circumstances under which such rape incidences were reported are illustrated in the interviews and group discussion materials as indicated in the following:

The day before her interview on December 30, 2002, 16-year old Annette (not her real name) was returning from Uganda with her two younger sisters, aged seven and five, for the end of the year holidays. They branched off from the main Kaya to Yei road and had spent about an hour on the feeder road when five gunmen stopped them. Two of them pushed Annette into a bush and raped her, while the other stood guard, threatening the two younger sisters and helping themselves to the clothes that the girls were carrying in their school bags. One of the rapists was later arrested but the other ones remain at large.

From the above it is apparent that sexual abuse and other forms of violence against women, even when reported, are seldom punished.

In another example, a girl reported that she had been raped in Otego Payam, Yei County. The staff at Pawaya PHCU prescribed treatment but the drugs were not available and she was referred to Yei hospital for treatment.

There is some degree of forced marriage in both counties. It would appear that the practice is much more common in Yei where 11% of the males and 8% of the female respondents reported they had been forced into marriage. Also for both counties, relatively more males than females had been forced into marriage.

5.8 PROPERTY RIGHTS

The village chief or headman serves as the main arbiter in the event of land conflict in both counties. There was also a sense of fatalism among many of the male

Table 5.13 Gender Attitudes to Children's Abilities and Contributions

Gender Attitudes	Male Respondents			Female Respondents		
	Boys %	Girls %	Both %	Boys %	Girls %	Both %
For whom is it important to educate	6.4	1.7	91.9	7.3	3.6	89.1
Who is more intelligent	32.0	15.1	44.0	34.7	16.9	40.7
Who helps family most with housework	10.1	62.7	25.8	7.2	71.4	19.3
Who helps family most with farm work	27.6	17.6	52.9	30.7	17.8	47.5
Who helps family most with cattle	86.6	--	7.5	71.7	3.3	17.4
Who helps family most with goats	77.3	4.7	16.0	66.4	4.9	27.4
Who is expected to give more financial help	34.8	12.9	41.5	27.3	17.9	42.9

Table 5.14: Abuse and Violence Experienced by Female Respondents

Type of abuse experienced	Number of Cases	Percent of Total	Number of Reported Cases	Percent of Reported
Mundri				
Personal experience of rape	12	7.6	8	66.7
Daughter has been raped	13	8.3	8	61.5
Other relative has been raped	19	12.1	15	78.9
Defilement	20	12.7	16	80.0
Adultery	17	10.8	14	82.4
Indecent assault	7	4.5	4	57.1
Child molestation	9	5.7	7	77.8
Yei				
Personal experience of rape	7	3.5	5	71.4
Daughter has been raped	14	7.0	9	64.3
Other relative has been raped	23	11.4	18	78.3
Defilement	12	6.0	8	66.7
Adultery	21	10.4	15	71.4
Indecent assault	15	7.5	7	46.7
Child molestation	13	6.5	7	53.8

and female respondents concerning this arbiter. Forty-five percent of the men in Mundri and 44% in Yei indicated that they would take no action in the event of conflict over land. Among the females, 36% of the women of Mundri and 30% of their counterparts in Yei would not do anything in the event of a land conflict.

5.9 WIDOW INHERITANCE

Widow inheritance was reported by more than 21% of the women in Mundri and 15% of their counterparts in Yei. Considering that Yei has fewer widows than Mundri, it is interesting to note that there are a relatively higher number of widow inheritance cases in Yei. This indicates that widow inheritance may be a widespread practice throughout the region, affecting as many as one-fifth of all the adult population. This

makes widow inheritance a critical issue to target in addressing the issue of HIV/AIDS transmission. In the same regard, it is important to note that 15% of the respondents in Mundri and 11% of those in Yei reported knowledge of adultery cases.

5.9.1 Unlawful Claiming of Property from Widows

Taking property from widows is a fairly rampant practice, with 10% of the respondents in Mundri and 12% in Yei reporting knowledge of cases in which property was reclaimed by the deceased husband's relatives, much to the detriment of his widow. Sixty percent of the women in Mundri and 46% of their counterparts in Yei reported that they would take no action if their spouses were to take property from a widow. This demonstrates a relatively low level of understanding regarding women's rights or lack of effective legal and community redress to prevent the loss of women's property.

6. Gender, Use of Natural Resources, and Food Security

6.1 INTRODUCTION

In their book, Bunning and Hill (1996) define farmers as men and women who have domesticated, developed, conserved and preserved genetic plant material and other natural resources (land, water, vegetation, animal, bird and fish life). These natural resources allow families to obtain a livelihood and ensure their well-being through the provision of basic requirements such as food, fuel, water, and income from the land. The authors recommend that

“as men and women farmers’ knowledge, skills and practices contribute to the conservation, development, improvement, and management of Plant Genetic Resources (PGR), their different contributions should be recognized and respected by the intentional undertaking, particularly in terms of Farmers’ Rights. An analysis and understanding of men and women farmers’ differential roles and responsibilities in PGR conservation and management, as well as the intrinsic value of their knowledge, is crucial to sustainable, effective, and socio-economically appropriate PGR conservation initiatives, and to the provision of appropriate and targeted support. Efforts are required at all levels to develop and implement gender responsive policies, programs and actions for the conservation and sustainable use of plant genetic resources.”

In Sub-Saharan Africa, women dominate the small-holder sector, and they produce, on average, 70% of the food consumed in the region (Dankelman and Davidson, 1988). In Sudan, female farmers represent 57% of the traditional sector. Despite their key role in agricultural production, rural women are rarely included in “farmer” statistics and rarely play any role in policy decisions. Moreover, most agricultural data only include farmers whose labor is compensated or those who are in the formal sector or cooperatives, which often excludes women.

6.2 LAND USE AND MANAGEMENT

The amount of land managed per household, including fallow land, averaged 9.73 feddans in Mundri and 5.07 in Yei (Table 6.1). In Mundri, the average amount of land managed per household was nearly double that of Yei.

However, when taking stock of the land used for economic gain and the amount of land used for cash crops and food crops, there was little difference between Yei and Mundri. This implies that in Mundri there is a greater practice of allowing land to remain fallow or that there is more land acreage available per household. In both Mundri and Yei the land under food crop production was greater than that under cash crop production.

Table 6.1: Land Use

Land use type	Mundri			Yei		
	Number of Respondents	Mean (in feddan)	Std. Dev.	Number of Respondents	Mean (in feddan)	Std. Dev.
Cultivated and fallow	294	9.73	9.24	286	5.07	4.75
Used for economic gain	128	3.56	5.00	136	2.87	1.89
Under cash crops	47	2.62	1.65	74	2.81	1.72
Under food crops	296	4.12	3.60	282	3.65	5.25

Table 6.2: Accessing Farming Inputs

Households, which....	Mundri		Yei	
	Number of Respondents	%	Number of Respondents	%
Access adequate tools for farming	12	4.0	14	4.8
Use fertilizers/manure in farming	22	7.5	21	7.2
Obtain agricultural extension services	88	29.3	79	26.8
Personally obtain agriculture credit service	5	1.7	14	4.8
Have other family members get credit for farming	5	1.7	15	5.1

6.3 FARM INPUTS

In both Mundri and Yei, obtaining farming inputs that are not naturally found on the farm is very difficult, with the exception of agricultural extension advice. Twenty-nine percent of the households in Mundri and 27% of those in Yei reported that they could easily access such services (Table 6.2). Very few households in Yei and Mundri could access other farming inputs, namely farming tools, fertilizers/manure, and credit services.

6.4 HOUSEHOLD USES OF FOREST MATERIALS

The natural forests of Mundri and Yei provide a variety of products that are used by the households, including firewood, game meat, wild fruits, herbs, honey and timber (Table 6.3). When men and women were asked what products they gathered from the forests,

the responses differed. This difference is due to distinct gender roles. For instance, since women generally gather firewood, more women than men replied that they accessed the forest for firewood. Similarly, more men than women responded that they accessed forests for game meat.

6.5 DANGERS IN NATURAL FORESTS

According to those surveyed, the leading dangers encountered in the forest include snakes, wild animals, thorns, mosquitoes, and tsetse flies. Other problems cited, particularly in Yei, include fire and landmines.

6.6 AFFORESTATION PRACTICES

More males than females in both Mundri and Yei indicated that there had been some tree planting in their households in the 10 years prior to the survey. The

Table 6.3: Forest Products

Forest Products	Mundri		Yei	
	Female (n=151)	Male (n=136)	Male (n=91)	Female (n=190)
Firewood	33.8	25.7	35.2	60.0
Game Meat	11.9	16.2	18.7	9.5
Wild Fruits	13.9	12.5	18.7	14.7
Herbs	9.9	11.0	3.3	3.7
Timber	4.0	8.8	13.2	5.8
Honey	4.6	8.1	2.2	1.1
White Ants	4.0	6.6	0	1.1
Charcoal	3.3	4.4	1.1	0.5
Shea Nut	6.6	3.7	3.3	2.1
Papyrus/Grass	6.6	2.9	4.4	1.6
Bamboo	1.3	0	0	0

practice of tree planting was slightly higher in Mundri than in Yei.

The main barriers to tree planting (among those who did not have any trees in their households) included lack of seeds and tools, war, and displacement.

Tree planting is considered more of a man's job than a woman's job. Ninety-two percent of the respondents in Mundri and 91% of their counterparts in Yei reported that their household tree planting is done by men. Seventeen percent of the respondents in Mundri and 15% of the respondents in Yei reported that women participated in tree planting.

6.7 ACCESS TO FISH

In Mundri, 86% of households indicated that they were able to obtain fish. In Yei, 74% were able to obtain fish. In Mundri the majority (55%) of households source fish from the river while in Yei most households (60%) purchase fish.

In Mundri, lack of hooks/nets, lack of money, snakes, and distance from the river were the leading general obstacles to obtaining fish. However, other obstacles were gender-specific: the men cited that a lack of fishing gear was the greatest problem, while the women indicated that a lack of money prevented the purchase of fish.

6.8 FOOD SHORTAGES

The majority of respondents (93% in Mundri and 85% in Yei) have experienced periods of severe food shortages since the mid-1980s (Table 6.4).

In Yei, the leading causes of food shortages were bad weather, pests and diseases, lack of labor, lack of seeds, and war/destruction. In Mundri, bad weather, war/destruction, pests and diseases, and lack of labor were among the leading causes of food shortages.

Table 6.4: Household Experience of Food Shortage		
Experience and Cause of Food Shortage	Mundri (n=278) %	Yei (n=255) %
<i>Household ever experienced food shortage?</i>	92.7	85.0
Due to bad weather	64.0	30.0
Due to war/destruction of homes	30.7	18.3
Due to pests and diseases	30.0	27.3
Due to lack of labor	18.3	22.7
Due to lack/loss of farm implements	15.3	18.0
Due to ill-health/death in family	14.7	8.3
Due to looting of stored food	14.7	5.3
Due to abandonment of fields	11.3	9.3
Due to insecurity/land mines/combat	10.3	10.7
Due to looting of animals/poultry	7.3	2.0
Due to lack of seeds for planting	6.3	19.3
Due to domestic problems	4.3	9.0
Due to high food prices	2.3	6.0
Due to lack of access to market	2.3	2.3
Due to other reasons	17.0	21.3

7. Government Institutions and NGOs

7.1 INTRODUCTION

Community access to social, economic, political and legal services is often a reflection of a government's commitment to the people. Achieving these goals is difficult in all countries but the cost of ignoring them is extremely high. The nature of policies and institutions that are appropriate and effective in promoting integrated development should be tailored for a particular social context and should include analytical tools to measure progress. Macroeconomic policy, trade, and financial policies have major implications for employment, consumption, and distribution as well as productive assets of the poor (social, human, financial and physical capital).

In addition, public institutions should be efficient, corruption-free, and responsive to the needs of all segments in the society in order to achieve equitable development in any nation. Furthermore, civil society organizations should have the capacity to promote sound social development, represent the needs of the poor, build ownership of particular policies and programs, and ensure effective delivery of services. In other words, both public and civil society institutions play a key role in achieving equitable and sustainable development. The roles and levels of participation of important community-based organizations (CBOs) in designing, implementing, and evaluating programs in Mundri and Yei are assessed in the following sections.

7.2 NGOS OPERATING IN MUNDRI AND YEI

Yei and Mundri Counties each have up to six NGOs, both indigenous and international. International NGOs like Catholic Relief Services, Action Against Hunger, American Refugee Committee, International Aid Sweden, Norwegian People's Aid, and ACROSS were

found operating in Yei, while OXFAM-UK, Samaritan's Purse, Mundri Relief and Development Association, and Medecins Sans Frontieres-France were found in Mundri. A questionnaire was administered to international NGOs to determine their areas of programmatic focus and how they relate to the special needs of women in the two counties. Table 7.1 notes the results.

Table 7.1: NGO Programs in Mundri and Yei Counties

NGO Programs	Programs in Mundri	Programs in Yei
Food Security	6	1
Health	6	2
Water	3	1
Income Generation	4	1
Road Maintenance	0	0
Agriculture Recovery	3	3
Women's Program	6	2
Education (formal)	0	0
Counseling Program	0	0
Tracing Agency	0	1
Capacity Building	1	0

These results highlight that most NGO interventions are emergency-oriented and focus on the delivery of services such as food, water, health, and agricultural extension. In addition, the programs intended for women focus on income generation rather than education, institutional building, or capacity building. Table 7.2 indicates the gender and level of staff support among the NGOs in Mundri and Yei.

7.3 COMMUNITY-BASED ORGANIZATIONS IN MUNDRI AND YEI

A questionnaire was administered to community-based organizations in Mundri and Yei Counties. The survey contained questions regarding the length of time these organizations have been in operation, their affiliations,

Table 7.2: NGO Employees by Gender

Category of Staff	Mundri			Yei		
	Total #	% Female	% Male	Total #	% Female	% Male
Management	68	39.7	60.3	26	30.7	69.2
Technical	139	47.5	52.5	86	37.2	62.8
Support	94	43.6	56.4	64	42.2	57.8
Total	301	43.5	55.5	176	38.1	61.9

their membership size and the educational level of executive members. The survey also contained questions about the CBO's vision, mission, programs, planned activities, inputs required, sources of funding and financial status. Nine CBOs in Yei agreed to give information about their organizations, while, in Mundri, none of the CBOs agreed to participate.

Of the CBOs which participated in the study, the period of establishment of operation ranged from two months to 20 years. The CBOs in Yei County averaged 5.6 years of operation. Of the nine CBOs which participated in the study, five are faith-based, followed by economic-driven and welfare-enhancement groups. The smallest membership size among the CBOs is five people (a transport company) while the largest is the Christian Women's Empowerment Program, with a

membership size of over 1,000. The age of the members of CBOs ranged from 18 to 60 years, but it was not possible to determine the average age, as most members did not know their age.

Out of the nine CBOs, eight reported self-sufficiency as their vision, and one reported increasing religious devotion among the community as its vision. Mission statements for all nine CBOs included 'self-sufficiency,' 'income generation,' and 'service to communities.' However, no details were presented in regards to how they hoped to achieve these goals.

Of the nine CBOs, seven reported to have bylaws, offices, and registration documentation with county authorities. Four CBOs had one to four hired personnel to manage their organization. The study was unable to state the employees' work status (full-time or part-time), their responsibilities, or their terms of employment.

Out of the nine CBOs, five reported having planned activities: the rest did not divulge their plans. Of the five CBOs with activity plans, three reported the need for financial assistance, three requested agricultural tools, one needed sewing machines, and two others requested typewriters and training programs. Most CBOs expected external support for implementation of their programs.

The leading activity of community-based organizations in Yei at the time of this study included income generation (21.2%), followed by collection of food for the army (18.2%), farming (12.1%) and crafts (12.1%). At the time of study, not one CBO reported involvement in business development, savings, community mobilization, advocacy, sports, civic education, carpentry, bicycle repairs, blacksmithing or masonry. What is of great concern is that CBOs are not

Table 7.3: CBO Programs in Yei County

Program	#	%
Community Welfare	2	6
Income Generation	7	21.2
Business Development	0	0
Savings	0	0
Farming	4	12.1
Agriculture Extension	0	0
Collection of Food for the Army	6	18.2
Community Mobilization	0	0
Trading	1	3
Adult Literacy	3	9
Transport	2	6
Crafts	4	12.1
Sports	0	0
Civic Education	0	0
Leadership Training	2	6
Carpentry	0	0
Bicycle Repairs	0	0
Brick laying	2	6
Blacksmith	0	0
Masonry	0	0

Table 7.4: Educational Levels of CBO Office Bearers

Offices	Educational Levels			
	No Education	Primary	Junior	Secondary
Chairperson	2	4	0	3
D/Chairperson	2	4	0	0
Secretary	0	2	0	2
Treasurer	1	3	1	2

actively involved in advocacy and the promotion of issues affecting the lives of the people.

7.4 SPLM ADMINISTRATIVE AND POLITICAL STRUCTURE

The SPLM structure of governance is comprised of three arms: the legislative (Liberation Councils), the executive (County SPLM Secretary's office with the Executive Director and Heads of Departments including the Office of Women's Affairs and Child Welfare) and the judiciary (headed by the county judge). This structure is replicated at the payam and, to some extent, at the boma levels.

At the county level, general administration, collection of revenue, accounts, payments and the courts seemed to be operating very well. However, most social services such as education, health, and agriculture extension were offered by humanitarian agencies. In addition, neither county had a strategic plan for development, budgets, or sectorial allocation of resources. This posed a challenge, as these factors were needed to determine the county's priorities. The common practice adopted by the authorities is to allocate the revenues in percentages for the different levels of government: county, regional, and national. Oftentimes, expenditures are determined even before the revenue is collected, and line items such as education, health, and women's issues do not feature at all.

The leaders of the New Sudan Women's Association (which represents political interests) and the Women's Affairs and Child Welfare division (which represents socio-economic interests) were placed in the same office. Here, the two women's organizations were left to sort out their differences and commonalities, with

little attention given from any county authority. However, both were called upon whenever there were county level functions that required services.

What confused women even further was the structure of the organizations under which women were supposed to organize socially and politically. Neither of the two institutions had a constitution or operational guidelines to govern members in their efforts to set priorities, advocate and lobby for their rights, or initiate social justice reform.

The activities undertaken by women's groups were mainly aimed at increasing incomes of members, as shown in Table 7.3. Efforts to lobby and advocate for rights and issues affecting women, families, communities and the nation were very rudimentary. It was therefore not surprising that the rate of rape and violence, the number of insensitive laws, the weak judiciary system, and numerous inefficient law enforcement agents have had devastating effects on women in these two counties.

7.5 WOMEN IN THE CIVIL SERVICE

In Yei, a few women work as administrators or in the accounting section of the SPLM County Secretary's office. In Mundri, such information was not availed to the research team. More women worked as nurses than as teachers. The Agriculture Department also employed very few women and most worked as extension agents. At the payam level, fewer women worked in offices. Out of about 40 staff in the payam, only one percent were women. A very disturbing fact in Yei was that there were many women who had completed secondary school and were better qualified than some of the men who are currently employed

in the local government. One senior member of the civil authority explained that the low number of women in the civil service resulted from the fact that many women did not want to work in these offices because there was no paid salary. This may have been only part of the story and therefore serious analysis of the situation is required in order to comprehensively evaluate the issue of low employment of women in the civil service so as to find potential solutions.

7.6 WOMEN AND LEGAL SYSTEMS

Although the 1994 Chukdum Convention Resolutions clearly acknowledged the marginalization of women and promised to do everything possible to improve the situation of women, nothing much has happened in regard to the legal status of women. The Penal Code, Criminal Procedure and 24 acts were drafted and passed into law by the Leadership Council of the SPLM recently, but none directly protect the rights of women. In fact, customary law leaves women very vulnerable. Offenses such as adultery, rape, child custody, family quarrels (wife abuse) and property rights are often settled in the chiefs' courts or outside the statutory courts because of ignorance of the law or incorrect advice from legal service providers. Many cases, having been delayed in the lower courts (chiefs, regional, and payam), do not find their way to county courts because of the lack of competent magistrates and/or ignorance about the laws on the part of those who have suffered crimes. Many cases of rape or wife abuse have been dismissed or settled by chiefs on payment of a fine before the charges ever reach the county courts.

A female member of the boma court was interviewed about her experiences in the court and whether things had improved for women. She pointed out that boma courts mainly heard family cases and referred criminal cases to county courts via the payam courts. She

indicated that pregnant or lactating women have been sent to jail by the boma courts. In addition, women have gone to jail for committing adultery, whereas the male adultery offenders are generally fined. The majority of these offenders often fail to pay their fine.

Two rape cases occurred during the week the research team was in Gulumbi and Mugwo Bomas. Both cases of rape involved very young girls and the use of firearms. These incidents added to the high statistics noted in the regional court and the Police Commissioner's Office concerning the number of cases of rape, defilement, custody battles over legitimate and illegitimate children, and adultery.

Many young children are victims in custody battles: the children have been removed from their mothers by the courts with the full consent of the male relatives of the woman, and the children were then given to their fathers. Customary law allows for this, as children are seen as belonging to their fathers. The father of a child is often given the right to custody whether or not he is able to care for the child. In Yei there was a recent case of a woman who was in police custody because she attempted to commit suicide after she lost all her children to her ex-husband.

Furthermore judiciary and law enforcement institutions (i.e., police and prisons) are very weak. The only qualified legal personnel are at the county court. While the payam and boma administrators or chiefs heard cases, they often did not have law books. As a result most depend on experience and knowledge of customary law.

There were more challenges in enforcing the law once sentences were passed and offenders were sent to prison. More often than not convicted criminals escaped prison due to inadequate prison facilities and services. Women who have seen offenders or criminals walking free out of prison soon after being sentenced often became too afraid or reluctant to report crimes.

8. Summary of Results

8.1 INTRODUCTION

Realizing the paucity of information regarding women and their activities, the Women and Natural Resources Working Group of the New Sudan Government and USAID's Strategic Analysis and Capacity Building Activity set out to collect data that would enhance the planning of activities concerning women in the region and the households/communities in which they live. The following section highlights the major findings of this study.

8.2 SUMMARY OF RESULTS

8.2.1 Population and Household Structure

With an average of seven people per household, New Sudan has one of the world's largest family sizes, which is perhaps a reflection of the unique population dynamics in the region associated with a long period of armed conflict, early marriages, and high fertility rates. Women head about one-fifth of the households. In general, the population is young, with the majority of women younger than men. Women in the region marry early and usually to older men.

Eighty-two percent of the households interviewed have lost at least one family member since 1990. On average, there has been a decrease of 3.6 people per household since this time. Widows were one-fifth of the total female population, and more than one-quarter of the women were in unstable unions. One can thus conclude that the war has taken a great toll on family structure, especially in Mundri County. The high mortality rate in both Yei and Mundri is as much a result of direct war casualties as it is of the poor infrastructure incapable of providing effective access to health services.

8.2.2 Reproductive and Other Health Care

High fertility rates, low contraceptive use, little knowledge of antenatal care, poor access to birth supervision services, high rates of complicated deliveries, and numerous cases of sexually transmitted infections present significant challenges for safe motherhood in the region. The quality of services that exist is also wanting, as the majority of those surveyed who had sought gynecological services from health units had not yet been effectively treated. The lack of medications, expense of services, lack of transport, and inaccessibility of facilities remain the major obstacles to obtaining health services. With one-third of the respondents having relatives that had died in pregnancy or childbirth in the five years preceeding the survey, the possibility of abnormally high maternal mortality rates is real.

In addition to maternal mortality, there is a plethora of other illnesses affecting men and women in the region, leading to high rates of morbidity. The greatest challenge for the health system is the scarcity of health services, poor transportation network, lack of qualified service providers, and lack of medications in the health units.

8.2.3 Economic and Social Characteristics

Agriculture is the predominant economic activity but there is an increase of trading activities in which both men and women are engaged. The sale of natural products is a major resource base for many households. Despite this, the population remains very poor (particularly in Yei County) due to the great distances to markets and the poor network of roads.

Two-thirds of the women who were surveyed indicated that they had obtained some money from their agriculture and trade activities in the two weeks prior to the study. Most of this income was spent on the purchase of food, transport, medical bills, socialization, education of children and the payment of state

taxes. It appears that the practice of women controlling income, such as proceeds obtained from the sale of produce, has already taken root.

Women shoulder the bulk of domestic and production activities with very few men spending time on the care of the children, sick, and elderly and the preparation of food. Moreover, the proportion of women who participated in all the different productive ventures was higher than that of men except for trade, employment outside the home, and home repairs.

There were gender differences in the participation of activities both in terms of numbers and proportion of participants, as well as the average time spent on various activities. Two-thirds of adult male and female respondents agreed that girls did more housework than boys.

Both agriculture and trade are perceived as critical activities that lead to economic improvements in the lives of the population. Hence there is a need for creating an enabling environment (such as in transport and agricultural inputs) to exploit the existing potential in the area.

Housing in the region is generally temporary in nature. High altitude bombs from the government of Sudan have destroyed most of the permanent structures, such as hospitals, schools, and local government quarters over the years. Almost all water sources are unsafe, and sanitation in the region is very poor.

Education levels for men and women in Mundri and Yei are poor, with less than two-thirds of the respondents having attended school, most of which occurred at the primary level. Women's education was lower than that of the men. Older people, in particular, older males, were better educated than those under the age of 20. The war, lack of local education facilities, poor road networks, and nonexistent public transport system were the main barriers cited for the poor attainment of education in the region. Other reasons include a lack of teachers, poor health, lack of money for fees, and the opportunity cost of education.

8.2.4 Gender Attitudes and Practices

The education of girls is already acceptable to most households. However, boys are generally expected to offer more financial help to their families than are girls. There is a higher experience of abuse and violence against women and girls in Mundri than in Yei. Cases of sexual child abuse were also common, particularly in Yei. Sexual abusers and those who bring violence to women are seldom punished. Many of the victims do not receive the required medical care even when seriously needed. Forced marriages are prevalent for both women and men in both counties.

Widow inheritance is a widespread practice throughout the region, affecting as much as one-fifth of the adult population. Taking property from widows is a fairly rampant practice, indicating that there is a low level of understanding about women's legal rights with regard to land and property.

8.2.5 Perceptions and Rights Over Property

The justice system is very weak. Most of the disputes are left to untrained village chiefs and headmen. As a result, most men and women have lost faith in the justice system and will not approach local authorities in the event of a conflict over land. Thus, there is a need to restore faith in local authorities when it comes to resolving land conflicts.

8.2.6 Land Use and Management

Each family manages relatively large plots of land. The average area of land managed (including the land that was lying fallow at the time of survey) was 7.4 feddans. It is more common in Mundri than in Yei to allow land to remain fallow. In general the amount of land under food crop cultivation was greater in both areas than the amount of land under cash crop cultivation.

Access to all farming inputs that are not naturally found on the farm is inadequate, with the exception of agricultural extension advice. Very few households can access such inputs as farming tools, fertilizers/manure, and credit services.

8.2.7 Household Usage of Materials from Forests

The natural forests of Mundri and Yei provide a variety of products such as firewood, game meat, wild fruits, herbs, honey and sticks. There are gender differences in the exploitation of these products: women more frequently access the forests for firewood, while men access the forests for game meat. The practice of tree planting was slightly higher in Mundri than in Yei. The main barriers to tree planting were lack of seeds and tools, as well as war and displacement. Tree planting is primarily considered a man's job.

Most households access fish either through fishing or through purchase. Lack of fishing gear, money, and the long distance to the rivers are the main barriers to obtaining fish.

Food shortages are a frequent phenomenon due to bad weather, lack of seeds, inadequate labor, pests and diseases, lack of farming implements, and, as is the case in Mundri, war-related issues.

8.2.8 Gender Equity in Government and NGO Programming

Contrary to what has been proclaimed in the 1994 National Conventional Resolutions and in other SPLM documents, women are still seriously marginalized. Worse still, there are no programs aimed at improving their socio-economic, political, or legal status. Customary and statutory laws, in addition to the institutions of law enforcement, offer very little protection to women. In addition, women comprise less than one percent of the civil service work force.

While acknowledging the important role played by NGOs and CBOs in the delivery of social services to the population, it is important to highlight the lack of attention on the part of these organizations in empowering women through increasing their capacity to mobilize and advocate issues affecting their lives.

9. Recommendations

9.1 INTRODUCTION

With regard to recommendations, two observations must be made. First, it is difficult to make specific recommendations when there is no formal government and the nature of the emerging state is not fully defined.

Second, basic infrastructure such as roads and institutional social services (schools, health units, water supplies, effective local administration, and legal services) will need to be established. Resettlement is an important population issue in the region and will certainly impinge on local government capacity and alter traditional socio-economic patterns and forms of livelihood. Payam and county authorities should closely monitor these trends, and field activities should be refocused where necessary to meet the population's needs and to tap the skills and resources of these population groups.

The recommendations below are therefore based on the assumption that the above critical premises will be established and implemented by the postwar administration. To maintain focus on a range of issues that can be addressed by the Women and Natural Resources Working Group and other critical players in women's development, the following actions are recommended:

9.2 POVERTY ERADICATION THROUGH MANAGEMENT OF NATURAL AND HOUSEHOLD RESOURCES

There is no doubt that the earth in southern Sudan is fertile, considering the wide range of crops in the area. In addition, many households have different types of livestock, indicating that there is a potential for an

animal industry. Wide tracts of land covered by forests, rivers, swamps, and grasslands are also present. Consequently, there is a wide range of natural resources from which many people are making a livelihood. All this calls for specific studies in several sectors, such as farming, agro-ecological, and zoning systems. Soil studies and environment impact assessments are crucial prior to specific design and implementation of programs.

9.3 EMERGING FOOD CROPS FOR EXPORT

With the wide range of food crops available throughout the area, there is a source of valuable emerging food crops for export. There is also a possibility of expanding production of the existing crops and shifting from subsistence farming to producing for the market. This calls for agricultural research, extension services and agricultural economic approaches over a medium to long-term planning time frame.

9.4 AGRICULTURAL EXTENSION SERVICES

Agricultural extension services (government and non-government) are very limited both at the national and local government levels. Most of the production is done without external advice. There is a need to establish a farm extension service system for the animal, fishery, and crop sectors. Bilateral and international agencies such as USAID, IFAD and FAO have a wealth of experience in carrying out integrated agricultural extension and production support services of medium and long-term financing. These can be addressed at the appropriate time so as to transform the agricultural economy in the area.

9.5 NON-HUMAN RESOURCE AGRICULTURAL INPUTS

There is a need to revolutionize agriculture through the improvement of technology, tools, and seeds. For example, the utilization of grinding mills will save time and increase output for women.

9.6 FINANCING AND CREDIT

Lack of financing is a major setback to farm production and marketing. Rural credit is still very restricted, as it hardly exists in many areas. Savings and credit groups do not exist in most regions. Rural credit schemes have benefited the poor in neighboring Uganda, especially those run by non-governmental organizations such as the Ugandan Women's Effort to Save Orphans (UWESO). Some of these successful efforts have operated in post-conflict areas. Female group leaders could learn important lessons by undertaking field studies of rural credit schemes in neighboring countries to acquire or improve on techniques of operating savings and credit programs. The large number of widows and orphans requires specific attention to their development options as special groups. Micro-savings operations need to target these groups as an entry point.

Moreover, activities for the improvement of women's status in the region would have to take into consideration this rising shift from agriculture to trade, which are major forms of economic activity for women. It is also important to note that micro-savings operations and related activities have a good basis since there are already entrepreneurial endeavors among women. In addition, the responsibilities of women controlling income and finances have already taken root.

9.7 COMMUNITY GROUPS

Community groups (primarily self-help oriented) are becoming more prominent and could grow further. These groups usually pool together financial resources so as to help members on a revolving basis. Such community groups are instrumental in expanding economies of scale for small farmers and can facilitate extension service operations, marketing information, and transportation of produce. Although community groups can help some individual households, they run the risk of omitting the poorest households which lack basic resources and cannot contribute to the pool of funds. Moreover, basic training in identifying development projects and making investment decisions will be required. Community development staff will have to be recruited and trained in the operations of community groups. Alternatively, the community groups' effort can be handled by non-governmental organizations, as is the case of the Uganda National Farmers Association (UNFA) in neighboring Uganda.

9.8 EDUCATION

Education (literacy, school attendance) is closely related to poverty levels. A functional adult literacy program is thus called for and should place emphasis on such aspects as health, nutrition, water, sanitation and agriculture. The educational needs of New Sudan, however, will require immediate attention and capital investment on the part of the government, faith-based organizations, communities, and donor agencies. The high demand for education in the community is a positive aspect that needs to be addressed. Both primary and secondary education are needed to create the necessary manpower to address the community, county, and national needs of New Sudan.

9.9 ACCESSIBILITY OF TRANSPORTATION AND COMMUNICATION

Poor roads and limited modes of communication prevent households from participating in literally all aspects of development, including the development of a market economy and basic services. Therefore, the construction of roads in New Sudan requires great emphasis. The main trunk roads should be the first priority in the criteria for selecting and ranking road improvement projects.

9.10 HEALTH SERVICES

Health services are so inaccessible and expensive that even the most affluent households spend a large proportion of their disposable income on health care. Villagers that go to a 'government' health unit are often unable to pay for medication. From discussions concerning health care providers, it is clear that there are several factors beyond cost that affect a person's choice of health provider. The attitudes of the staff, the waiting time, the availability of medications, the distance to the facility, the type of illness, and the perceived effectiveness of the treatments all impact the patient's decisions concerning health care. A health component should be a part of the development of the region, and it should address the medication shortage and health coverage availability in more remote villages.

9.11 IMPROVING REPRODUCTIVE HEALTH SERVICES

The high fertility rate and poor quality of maternal care in the region is an issue that should concern all stakeholders. Available literature concurs that the risks of childbearing are greatest when the mother is under 18, over 35 years old or when births occur within a two-year span. Officials need to develop and/or intensify efforts to explain to the population the risks of

child bearing outside the 18-35 age bracket and of having births too close together. The existing administrative structure and NGO efforts should form a basis for these public health activities. An army of trained volunteers knowledgeable of reproductive health issues will be required. The traditional birth attendants (TBAs), immunizers, teachers, NGO and CBO staff, staff of established health units, and female group leaders are a potential source of trainers and educators of reproductive health services.

9.12 INCREASING MALE INVOLVEMENT IN HOUSEHOLDS

One of the main concerns in many households is the low level of men's involvement in caregiving activities. There are very few men who spend time in caregiving for children, the sick, or the elderly. There is a need to raise awareness among men regarding reproductive health care concerns and the need for their involvement in general household tasks and caregiving. The pitfall lies in specific gender-targeting, whereby either men or women are excluded from a particular project, especially if they are not the primary caregivers. As evident from this survey, women spend most of the day on the farm. Therefore, people who need special care, such as children and the elderly, are left with persons other than the mothers for a significant part of the day.

It is recommended, therefore, that appropriate messages concerning child care be developed for the alternate caregivers, such as older children and fathers. The medium and long-term benefits of such a strategy are:

- (a) Simple educational messages given to fathers concerning their children will encourage them to be a source of support to their wives. Education about the improvement of homes, construction of pit-latrines, and the importance of nutritional foods may have more to do with a husband's attitude and priorities than with a mother's knowledge.

Therefore, educating both parents will provide for the best care of families and children.

- (b) It is likely that babies left under the supervision of spouses and siblings are those who no longer require breast milk. Therefore information concerning the importance of clean utensils, hand washing, and toilet habits should be given to these caregivers to reduce incidences of diarrhea.
- (c) Siblings who are caregivers today will be the parents of tomorrow and the knowledge gained through current experiences will not only be of help to the immediate child, but also to the future children that will be produced by these caregivers later in life.

9.13 HIV/AIDS PREVENTION

Although this study did not specifically set out to address this problem, it is important to note that there is very little information on this topic. Nonetheless, some of the observations below will be helpful to any study concerning HIV/AIDS in this region:

1. Countries neighboring New Sudan have high HIV/AIDS rates;
2. Sudan has been at war for a long time;
3. The rate of mortality even in Yei, which is not on the frontline, is high;
4. Syphilis infections remain the most common gynecological problem cited by women;
5. Widow inheritance (whereby a widow becomes the wife of her deceased husband's brother) is rampant in New Sudan;
6. HIV/AIDS prevention or mitigation is not a topic of discussion in most communities.

On the basis of the above, it is recommended that the problem of HIV/AIDS in New Sudan be studied in depth. In addition, there is a need to establish a comprehensive HIV/AIDS management program which includes a peer education and support program. The

mandate of this organization can be broadened to incorporate aspects of maternal health for forming early awareness of HIV/AIDS issues. The mitigation strategies targeting war-widows and orphans can also include AIDS-affected counterparts to minimize stigma.

9.14 FAMILY PLANNING

Family planning activities will have to take into consideration the issue of high mortality rates both within individual households and at the community level. Parents will have to be assured that their children will survive before they will accept low family sizes. Other issues that should be of critical importance are women and men's low levels of education, which affect their family planning and child rearing abilities and job opportunities. Accessible basic infrastructures are also required to enable the integration of family planning activities within the health programs of the region.

9.15 ADDRESSING THE STATUS OF WOMEN

It should be noted that mothers' education levels are low and illiteracy rates are very high. The emerging projects and programs should therefore consider the development of suitable health education strategies to reach these target groups. Considering the low levels of education, public health messages should be developed in the communities.

All program designers need to take advantage of the environment as established in this survey. For instance the fact that the majority of households already have women who control sales is of critical importance to women's access to reproductive care and child survival services. In an environment where the public health care system is almost nonexistent, shops, drug stores, and private clinics are likely to emerge as the primary source of care when the economy is liberalized. It follows, therefore, that women who control their own income can easily access health care.

Most of the health concerns such as immunization, the reduction of diarrhea through hand washing, or the consumption of healthy food have some cost attached. Mothers who control their income will find it easier to participate in the programs and adopt the innovations. In sum, support of collective community financial groups (such as women's micro-savings operations) should increase women's sexual and reproductive health rights and improve overall household health.

It is also very important to increase women's participation in key decision making positions. This could be addressed through increasing women's access to formal and informal education (such as civil education), the opportunity to advocate issues affecting women's lives, and, above all, to information and networking opportunities.

9.16 WATER AND SANITATION

Water and sanitation conditions are generally very poor. Over 90% of the population use unprotected sources for drinking water and they have no latrines. The implications on disease and health are profound. A comprehensive water management program involving government water departments, community development organizations, and communities themselves will need to be addressed to ensure safe water for households.

Community development efforts should be intensified so as to improve housing and hygiene as well as provide further impetus for development and sustainability projects. One way of improving domestic hygiene is to encourage housing and health competitions between bomas and parishes. This would include the following aspects:

1. Cleaning of compounds,
2. Construction and usage of toilets,
3. Boiling and proper storage of drinking water,
4. Cultivation of home gardens,

5. Construction of pens for domestic animals outside places of residence.

Such a program would require public health officials to work alongside local leaders in improving environmental sanitation. The financial inputs into such a program need not be great, provided that the local leadership is properly sensitized and accepts the program readily.

The success of such a program depends on intensive monitoring of staff. It is recommended that Community Development Assistants be recruited, trained and deployed at the payam level. These assistants will become part of the core team of the program and will carry out the strategy.

9.17 LOCAL GOVERNMENT

Local government effectiveness is hampered by limited capacity at all levels. Given the boma and payam advantages in accessing the population, the need for capacity building of leaders and technical staff is critical. Due to the emergency nature of the establishment of development programs, projects comprised of capacity building, remuneration of staff, and establishment of leadership accountability systems should take precedence over construction of high cost community centers.

9.18 SUMMARY OF RECOMMENDATIONS

The findings of this report indicate the daunting challenges that all stakeholders face in the development of this region. Addressing the issues highlighted in this report calls for determination and focus. The challenges are not insurmountable and the human and natural resource base of New Sudan can adequately meet the challenge. Some of the problems can be solved quickly while others will take years and even decades to overcome. First and foremost, however, the war must end.

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Appendix

Survey Questionnaire

Baseline Study on the Status of Women in the New Sudan
QUESTIONNAIRE FOR HOUSEHOLD HEADS

IDENTIFICATION

Region:	Payam of last residence:
County:	Location: 1 Rural [] 2 Urban [] 3 IDP Camp []
Payam:	Date of interview:
Boma:	Name of interviewer:
Village:	Checked by: Date checked:
Name of Chief:	Result: 1 Complete [] 2 Incomplete []

100: HOUSEHOLD MEMBERSHIP

101. List of persons who are currently residing in the household *[beginning with the respondent, followed by the oldest to youngest house member]*

No	Name	Sex	Age	Marital Status	Level of Educ code)	Educ Level years)	Functionally iterate?	Occup (code)	Position code)	Relation to head of household
1							Yes No			
2							Yes No			
3							Yes No			
4							Yes No			
5							Yes No			
6							Yes No			
7							Yes No			
8							Yes No			
9							Yes No			
10							Yes No			
11							Yes No			
12							Yes No			

Married codes

Never married	1
Cohabiting	2
Married	3
Separated	4
Divorced	5
Widowed	6

Education Codes

None	1
None-formal	2
Primary	3
Junior	4
Secondary	5
University	6
Oth Post Sec	7

Employment Codes

Occupation	Code	Position	Code
None/not working	1	Unemployed (Looking)	1
Agriculture	2	Employer	2
Forestry/Fishing	3	Regular Employee	3
Professional/managerial	4	Casual Employee	4
Clerical/ Sales/ Service	5	Own account worker	5
Manu /Transport/Labor	6	Unpaid family worker	6
Artisan	7	Pupil/Student/Apprentice	7
Trader	8	Retired/Sick/Handicap	8
Student/pupil	9	Other (specify)	9
Other (specify)	10		

Relationship to Household Head Codes

Household head	1	Sister/Brother	6
Husband/Wife	2	Son/Daughter	7
Father/Mother	3	Cousin	8
Grandpa/Grandmother	4	Other relative	9
Uncle/Aunt	5	Un-related	10

200. SOCIO-DEMOGRAPHIC/FERTILITY STATUS

- 201 Name of respondent _____
- 202 Sex: Female=1 Male=2 []
- 203 How old are you? (Completed years) _____
- 204 What is your occupation? []
- | | |
|--------------------------------|--------------------------|
| 1 Housework | 7 Armed forces |
| 2 Professional/Administrative | 8 Looking for work |
| 3 Clerical and related workers | 9 Casual laborer |
| 4 Petty trader | 10 Not working |
| 5 Agriculture | 11 Sick /retired/too old |
| 6 Artisan | 12 Others (specify) |
- 205 Religion []
- | | |
|----------------|-------------------|
| 1 Catholic | 6 Pentecostal |
| 2 Episcopal | 7 Muslim |
| 3 Lutheran | 8 African |
| 4 Presbyterian | 9 Other (specify) |
| 5 SDA | |
- 206 Tribe []
- | | |
|-----------|-------------------|
| a Acholi | g Muru |
| b Didinga | h Nuer |
| c Dinka | i Pojulu |
| d Kakwa | j Toposa |
| e Kuku | k Zande |
| f Madi | l Other (specify) |
- 207 What is the highest level of education and class you attained?

Level	Class
1 None	
2 Non-formal only	
3 Primary (years)	
4 Junior (years)	
5 Secondary (years)	
6 University (years)	
7 Other Post Secondary (years)	

- 208 Have you ever attended any non-formal training such as reading and writing, skills development or setting up and managing a business?
- Yes No (go to 210)
- 209 What type of non-formal training did you receive?

Level	Total duration
1 Basic Literacy	
2 Catechumen/Bible class	
3 Koran School	
4 Skills Development	
5 Business/Credit and Savings	
6 Farm Management	
7 Environment Protection	

8 Military Training	
9 Civic Education	
10 Organization Management	
11 Leadership Training	
12 Health Training	
13 Others (specify)	

210 What is your marital status? []

- 1 Never married 4 Separated
2 Married 5 Divorced
3 Co-habiting/Living together 6 Widowed

210b [For those married] How many times have you been married in your life? []

210c Have you ever been forced into any marriage, whether permanent or temporary?

Yes No

210d When? (month and year)

210e Who forced you into marriage?.....

211 [For those currently married only] Has your spouse ever been to school?

Yes No (go to 213)

212 What level of schooling does she/he have?

Level	Class
1 None	
2 Non-formal only	
3 Primary (years)	
4 Junior (years)	
5 Secondary (years)	
6 University (years)	
7 Other Post Secondary (years)	

213 Do you have any children aged 6 – 15 years in your home?

Yes No (skip to 215)

214 Please provide the following details about these children:

No.	Name	Sex	Age	Is he/she in school?	(If not in school) Why is he/she not in school?	For those not in school only) Has he /she ever been to school?	If ever been to school) In which class did he/she dropout?

		Male=1 Female =2		Yes=1 No=2	1 Lack of money to pay for school expenses 2 Lack of interest 3 Difficulties with school work 4 Distance from school 5 Expelled from school 6 Wanted to earn money 7 Needed to work at home/on farm 8 Illness of self/in home 9 Death in the family 10 Menstruation/reached puberty 11 Bullying 12 Sexual harassment 13 Pregnancy 14 Marriage 15 Security/had to flee 16 Other (Specify) _____	Yes=1 No=2	
1							
2							
3							
4							
5							
6							

215 What is the most important reason for children to go to school? []

- 1 To know how to read and write
2 To gain knowledge/be well informed
3 To have certificates/diplomas
4 To obtain a well-paid job
5 Other (specify) _____

216 Is it more beneficial for boys or girls to attend school? []

- 1 Boys 2 Girls 3 No difference

217 Why is it more important? []

- 1 They need to support their parents in old age
2 They need to support their family
3 They are more likely to get a good job
4 Other (specify) _____

218 Given an opportunity, would you like to undertake any training?

Yes No

219 What type of training would you like to have?

Basic Literacy	
Religious	
Skills Development	
Business/Credit and Savings	
Farm Management	
Environment Protection	
Civic Education	
Military Training	
Organization Management	
Leadership Training	
Health Training	
Others (specify)	

220 Would you support your spouse's endeavors to gain further training?
Yes No

221 What form of support would you give?

222 [I would like to ask about the kind of work the children in this household normally help with] What activities do boys in this household normally engage in?

223 What activities do girls normally engage in?

224 Please tick in the most appropriate box for each of the questions below:

	1 Boys	2 Girls	3 Both	4 Don't know
a Who helps the family most with housework?				
b Who helps the family most with farm work?				
c Who helps the family most with cattle?				
d Who helps the family most with goats?				
e Who does the family expect more financial support from in the future?				
f Who are more intelligent: boys or girls?				

225 Now regarding this home and locations where services are obtained, please let me know where the nearest (see below) is:

Facility	Name of Place	Distance in miles (if unknown estimate with supervisor)
1 Kindergarten		
2 Primary school		
3 Secondary school		
4 Community/Meeting Center		
5 Market for buying small household items		
6 Market for selling animals		
7 Shops/Trading Center		
8 Town		
9 Source of motorized transport		
10 River Transport		
11 Main/Trunk road		
12 NGO office		
13 Payam Administration		
14 Court		
15 Grinding Mill		
16 Radio call or mail delivery station		
17 Credit Institution		

300: HOUSEHOLD, MATERNAL AND CHILD HEALTH STATUS

301 Distance from home to nearest:

Description	Name of Place	Distance in miles (if unknown estimate with supervisor)
1 Your first point of health care		
2 PHCU		
3 PHCC		
4 Maternity Unit (with admission beds)		

Description	Name of Place	Distance in miles (if unknown estimate with supervisor)
5 PHCC/maternity unit (with beds)		
6 Hospital		
7 Qualified Nurse		
8 Qualified Midwife		
9 Qualified Clinical Officer		
10 Qualified Doctor		
11 Traditional Birth Attendant		
12 Traditional Healer		
13 Market/shops where you've purchased medicine		
14 Child spacing services		
15 Child spacing provider		
16 Health unit with laboratory services that check blood or stool		
17 Ambulance service		

302 Did any member of the household consult a doctor, nurse, dentist or traditional healer/herbalist or use herbs as a remedy for illnesses in the past 12 months?

Yes No

303 What kind of health provider was last seen by any household member? [] (Select one)

Codes:			
Traditional healer	1	Vendor / Market shop	6
Aide post	2	Private doctor/dentist/clinic	7
Dispensary	3	District / mission hospital	8
Health Center	4	Other _____	9
Private drug store	5	None	10

304 Reason for seeking medical care on that last visit? []

Codes:			
Fever /malaria	1	HIV/Aids	9
Diarrhea/Gastro-Intestinal	2	Nutrition program	10
Accident/Injury	3	Dental	11
Pre/post natal care	4	Ochoecleosis	12
Delivery care	5	Immunization	13
STD (sexually transmitted diseases)	6	Guinea worms	14
Tuberculosis	7	Kalazar	15
Flu/Cough/Other URT Infection	8	Sleeping sickness	16
		Other _____	17

305 What were the problems you experienced during that visit? []

No problem	1	Too expensive	5
Facilities not clean	2	No drugs available	6
Long waiting time	3	No injection	7
No trained professionals	4	Other (specify)	8

306 Are there any health problems that are best handled by traditional healers/herbalist or herbs rather than medical personnel?

Yes No

307 What types of health problems are best handled by traditional healers/herbalist?

308 Has any member of your household ever required the assistance of a traditional healer/herbalist or used herbs for treating an illness in the past 12 months?

Yes No

309 Was this a man or a woman, boy or girl?

	Number
Men	
Boys	
Women	
Girls	

310 What was the person(s) suffering from?

311 How was the healer paid? (Probe for all material and cash payments) Make an estimate of total payments in cash

312 Was the person cured by the healer?
Yes No

313 [Allow me to ask something rather personal but which is important for planning purposes] Has any member of this household died since 1990?
Yes No (go to 316)

314 How many people have died in this household since 1990? []

315 Please let me have the following information about the deceased household members beginning with the most recent:

(a) Death No.	(b) Sex of deceased M=1 F=2	(c) Year died	(d) Age or approx. age at death	(e) Where did the death occur? 1 In this home 2 In household other home 3 In IDP camp 4 Among relatives 5 In exile 6 In hospital 7 At traditional healers 8 On the road or in travel 9 On front line 10 Other (specify)	(f) Cause of death 1 Illness, untreated 2 Illness, traditionally treated 3 Illness, treated (modern) but inadequate 4 Nutritional 5 Killed/wounded 6 Don't know 7 Other (specify)
1					
2					
3					
4					
5					

316 Are you pregnant now?

Yes (skip 320a) No Don't know

317 Do you want to have another child in the next two years?

Yes No Don't know

318 Are you currently using any method to avoid or postpone pregnancy?

Yes No

319 What methods are you (and your husband) using now to avoid/ postpone pregnancy?

- | | |
|---------------------------|--------------------------------|
| 1 Injections | 8 Coitus withdrawal |
| 2 Pill | 9 Marrying other wives |
| 3 IUD | 10 Separating wife from spouse |
| 4 Condom | 11 Herbs/Oath |
| 5 Exclusive breastfeeding | 12 Other (specify) _____ |
| 6 Rhythm/Calendar/Natural | 13 None |
| 7 Abstinence | |

320a How soon after a woman knows she is pregnant should she first see a health professional (such as physician, nurse, trained TBA, midwife)? (Probe for months) []

- | | |
|-----------------------------------|--------------------------------|
| 1 First trimester, 1-3 months | 4 Don't know |
| 2 Middle of pregnancy, 4-6 months | 5 No need to see health worker |
| 3 Last trimester, 7-9 months | |

320b [If 320 (5) then] Why not?

321 For all the pregnancies you ever had, beginning with the first:

(a) Pregnancy No	(b) Was it a live birth?	(c) Sex of child M=1 F=2	(d) Is child alive? Yes=1 No=2	(e) Age	(f) With whom does the child live?	(g) In case of death		
	Live =1 Still =2				1 Mother and father 2 Mother only 3 Father only 4 Mother and stepfather 5 Father and stepmother 6 Grandmother/Grandfather 7 Aunt/Uncle 8 Brother/Sister 9 Other relatives 10 Other (specify)	Year died	Age at death	Cause of death 1 Illness, untreated 2 Illness, traditionally treated 3 Illness, treated (modern) but inadequate 4 Nutritional 5 Killed/wounded 6 Don't know 7 Other (specify)

322 Have you/your spouse ever had any health problem related to pregnancy or childbirth?
Yes No (skip to 324)

323 If Yes,

What problem?	Did you seek any medical care for the problem? Yes=1 No=2	From whom? 1 Traditional healer 2 PHCU 3 PHCC 4 Hospital 5 Private drug store 6 Vendor/Market shop 7 Private doctor/dentist/clinic 8 Other _____ 9 None	Do you still have the problem? Yes=1 No=2	Did you have any problems in accessing or using this service? If yes, what were these problems?

324 Do you have any relatives that have died of pregnancy or childbirth over the last 5 years?
Yes No

325 [If Yes] How many women died of pregnancy or childbirth and what was their relationship to you?

Relationship	No. of women
Wife	
Mother	
Sister	
Aunt	
Cousin	

Other relative	
Un-related but living with me	

Children under age 5 [If No children under 5, skip to Q. 400]

326 For all children under age 5 in this household, please give me the following information beginning with the youngest **(If age unknown put 00 for month and year)**:

Birth details	Child 1	Child 2	Child 3	Child 4	Child 5
Name					
Date of birth	__/__/__	__/__/__	__/__/__	__/__/__	__/__/__
Birth supervised by trained health professional?	Yes No	Yes No	Yes No	Yes No	Yes No

327 Has ----- (mention name) been vaccinated?

	Child 1	Child 2	Child 3	Child 4	Child 5
Yes, immunized					
No, not immunized					

327b. If Yes ask for card and fill in details as indicated below. If no card available indicate below.

	Child 1	Child 2	Child 3	Child 4	Child 5
BCG					
DPT-1					
DPT-2					
DPT-3					
Polio-0					
Polio-1					
Polio-2					
Polio-3					
Measles					
None					
No card/Unknown					

328 If any child below age 5 is not immunized, give reasons:

- | | |
|----------------------------|-----------------------|
| 1 Security | 6 Child may fall sick |
| 2 Did not want to immunize | 7 Child may die |
| 3 Husband refused | 8 Fear poisoning |
| 4 Too expensive | 9 Others (specify) |
| 5 Service unavailable | |

[]

400. ECONOMIC STATUS, NATURAL RESOURCES AND ENVIRONMENT

401 Does your household possess a (see below)?

Item	Yes=1 No=2	Who is the owner? 1 Self 2 Husband 3 Son 4 Father only 5 Brother 6 Other male relative 7 Mother only 8 Sister 9 Daughter 10 Other female relative 11 Father and mother 12 Friend (specify gender) 13 Other (specify gender)	Do you need someone else's permission to use this item? (If yes specify, if no put a zero)
a) Radio			
b) Cassette-player			
c) Bicycle			
d) Cart			
e) Plough			
f) Oxen			
g) Cows used as oxen			
h) Number of hoes			
i) Sponge mattress			
j) Motorcycle			
k) Car			
l) Personal tractor			
m) Shop			
n) Kiosk/stall			
o) Tea shop/Restaurant/Bar			
p) Other (specify)			

402. Livestock	a) How many/much does your household own?	b) Does your household sell any? Yes = 1 No = 2	c) Who controls the proceeds from the sales? (see codes)	d) What products are usually obtained from the livestock?	e) What contributions do women make towards the product? (see codes)	f) What benefits did women receive over the last 12 months?	g) What benefits do women get for the family?
a)Cattle							
b)Goats							
c)Sheep							
d)Horses							
e)Donkeys							
f) Pigs (non-Muslims only)							
g) Chicken/ ducks/ turkey/guinea fowls							
h) Doves/pigeons/ rabbits							
i) (other)							

Who controls sale' codes	
1	Self
2	Husband
3	Son
4	Father only
5	Brother
6	Other male relative
7	Mother only
8	Sister
9	Daughter
10	Other female relative
11	Father and mother
12	Friend (specify gender)
13	Other (specify gender)

For questions 402 and 403

Women's contribution' codes	
1	Land preparation/ploughing
2	Planting
3	Weeding
4	Harvesting
5	Storing
6	Cleaning/winnowing
7	Carrying to market
8	Selling
9	Other (specify)

403. Crops	a) How many/much does your household own?	b) Does your household sell any Yes=1 No=2	c) Who controls the proceeds from the sales? (codes)	d) What products are usually received from the crops?	e) What contributions do women make towards the product? (codes)	e) What benefits do the women get for themselves?	f) What benefits do women get for the family?
Maize							
Sorghum							
Millet							
Cassava							
Sweet potato							
Honey							
Simsim							
Beans							
Cow peas							
Sunflower							
Soybeans							
Greengram							
Yams							
Kapgu							
Bananas							
Avocado							
Passion fruits							
Citrus fruits							
Mangoes							
Pigeon peas							
Other fruits							
Other vegetables							
Stored grain							
Coffee							
Oil-palm							

403b Do you have a say on disposing, selling, or using the crops produced?	
403c Do you have a say on the animals reared by the family? What type of animals?	
403d If not you, why not?	

404 What is the roof of your house made of?

	Make	Owner
1	Grass/thatch	
2	Corrugated iron/galvanized iron	
3	Concrete/slate/roof tiles/asbestos	
4	Other (specify)	

Owner codes	
1	Self
2	Husband
3	Son
4	Father only
5	Brother
6	Other male relative
7	Mother only
8	Sister
9	Daughter
10	Other female relative
11	Father and mother
12	Friend (specify gender)
13	Other (specify gender)

405 What are the walls of the house you live in made of?

	Make	Owner
1	Mud	
2	Unbaked bricks	
3	Baked bricks	
4	Iron sheets	
5	Wood	
6	Cement blocks	

406 What is the main source of water in your house?

Water Source	Type	Distance to source
1	Borehole	
2	Protected spring	
3	Shallow well	
4	River/stream	
5	Dam	
6	Pond/swamps/surface	
7	Others	

407 What is the main source of fuel for lighting in your house?

Source of light	Type	Distance to source
1	Fire wood	
2	Candles	
3	Paraffin/kerosene lamp	
5	Solar	
6	Petroleum/diesel powered engine (electricity)	
7	Gas lamp	

408 What is the main source of fuel for cooking?

Source of fuel	Type	Distance to source
1	Cow dung	
2	Firewood	
3	Solar	
4	Petroleum-based fuel- (electricity)	
5	Charcoal	

6	Kerosene/paraffin	
7	Gas	
8	Other (specify)	

409 What type of toilet facilities do you have?

1	None/Bush	
2	Communal pit latrine	
3	Own pit latrine	
4	Flush toilet	
5	Other (specify)	

410. Resource ownership and management

<i>Property assets owned</i>	<i>Response</i>
a How much land does your household use (both cultivated and lying fallow)? (Estimate feddans)	
b How much of this land is used for economic gain? (feddans)	
c What is the size of land used for cash crops?	
d What is the size of land used for food crops that the household is currently managing?	
e What are the main sources of income for this household?	
f Do you use any materials from the forests or grasslands? (Probe for grass, poles, charcoal, herbs, fire wood, papyrus, game meat, bamboo, shea nut butter, white ants)	
g What do you use them for? (Probe for household use or sale)	
h What other benefits do women obtain from the forests, bushes and grasslands?	
i What are the problems of natural forests?	
j Have you planted any trees in the last 10 years?	
k (If no) why not?	
l (If yes) what types of trees?	
m Who in your household is participating in the planting of trees? (Probe for gender)	
n What are the benefits of tree planting for women?	
o Does your family have access to fish?	
p From where does your household obtain fish?	
q Who in your family goes fishing?	
r Who decides what quantity of fish remains for family and what goes for sale in the market?	
s What difficulties do you have in obtaining fish?	
t In the event of conflict over land, who do you consult?	
u If your spouse were to take or sell the family property, what would you do?	

Abuse and Violence

411 Have you?

(a) Type of Case	(b) Ever experienced Yes = 1 No = 2 (go to (f))	(c) Was case reported? Yes = 1 No = 2	(d) How was case handled?	(e) What should have been done in your opinion?	(f) In the event it (re)-occurs what should be done?
Personal experience of rape					
Daughter/Sister was raped					
Other relative was raped					
Adultery					
Indecent assault					

(a) Type of Case	(b) Ever experienced Yes = 1 No = 2 (go to (f))	(c) Was case reported? Yes = 1 No = 2	(d) How was case handled?	(e) What should have been done in your opinion?	(f) In the event it (re)-occurs what should be done?
Child molestation/abuse					
Widow inheritance					
Stealing of property from widows					

412. What is the most important economic activity that women in this household usually undertake? (Tick one)	413. In the last 2 weeks how much money have you obtained from?	414. In the last 2 weeks how much money have you saved from?
1 Housework []		
2 Cultivation []		
3 Poultry/animal husbandry []		
4 Livestock products []		
5 Petty trade []		
6 Handicraft/Artisan []		
7 Services (e g hair dressing) []		
8 Labor []		
9 Brewing/selling brew []		
10 Small scale industry []		
11 Other (specify)		

415. In the last 2 weeks how much money did you spend on	Amount
a) Food purchases	
b) Education of children	
c) Government/religious taxes	
d) Medical bills	
e) Social events (e g alcohol, entertaining visitors etc)	
f) Farm implements/income generating activity	
g) Transportation	
h) Investment (specify)	
i) Others (specify)	

416. What is your source of information on.....	Information Sources
a) Credit services	
b) How to access services (e g health)	
c) Business skills/training	
d) Business information (what sells and does not sell?)	
e) Commodity transport services	
f) Taxes	

417 Would you wish to engage in any other income generating activity other than the one(s) you are currently engaged in?

Yes

No (skip to 420)

418 Which other activity would you like to carry out?

[]

- | | |
|----------------------------|------------------------|
| 1 Cultivation | 6 Labor |
| 2 Poultry/animal husbandry | 7 Brewing/selling brew |
| 3 Trade | 8 Small-scale industry |
| 4 Handicraft/Artisan | 9 Other (specify) |

5 Services (e g hair dressing)

419 What is preventing you from taking on this activity? []

- | | |
|--------------------------------------|---------------------------------|
| 1 Lack of adequate skills | 9 Inadequate family support |
| 2 Lack of equipment (tools) | 10 Fear of lenders/loans/donors |
| 3 Lack of money (capital) | 11 Lack of interest |
| 4 Lack of markets (marketing skills) | 12 Lack of information |
| 5 Inadequate land | 13 Poor road conditions |
| 6 Husband will refuse | 14 Poor transport |
| 7 Already overloaded | 15 Others (specify) |
| 8 Involves leaving my family alone | |

420 What plans do you have for the improvement of your income activity?

421 What would you like to do to improve your personal economic status?

422 Have you ever undertaken any training or attended any course or seminar in income generating activities? (If yes, give details of venue, duration, date, etc)

423 Have you ever belonged to any organized group concerning women, income generation, political activities, religious activities, or any other such group?

424 If yes, which group?

425 Have you ever held a position of leadership in the community or group?

426 Why or why not?

500. GENDER AND AGRICULTURE

501 I now wish to find out about activities in food production for men and women in this household

502 Interviewer asks and ticks if the following categories of people are participating in (below activities) concerning cash crops in this household (start with men and then women)

	Men	Women	Boys	Girls
Land preparation/ploughing				
Planting				
Weeding				
Harvesting				
Post harvest management				
Others (specify)				

503 Please tick if the following categories of people are participating in (below activities) concerning food crops in this household

	Men	Women	Boys	Girls
Land preparation/ploughing				
Planting				
Weeding				
Harvesting				
Post harvest management				
Others (specify)				

504 Please tick if the following categories of people in this household are participating in (below activities) for livestock production

	Men	Women	Boys	Girls
--	-----	-------	------	-------

Grazing cattle				
Cleaning of cattle pen				
Grazing goats/sheep				
Rearing chickens				
Milking				
Milk processing management				
Selling of livestock: Poultry				
Goats/sheep				
Donkey				
Cattle				
Selling of livestock products:				
Fresh milk				
Sour milk				
Cream				
Eggs				

505 Where do you get the following items? (tick all mentioned)

	Hoes	Axes	Pangas	Ox-plough	Slashers	Rakes
From a blacksmith						
From a market						
From relief distribution						

506 Currently does your household have adequate tools for farming/cultivation? 1 Yes 2 No	
507 Currently does your household use fertilizers/manure in farming? 1 Yes 2 No	
508 How much power do women have over the sale of surplus food in your household? 1 All the power 2 A little power 3 No power at all	
509 Who decides on the use of proceeds from the sale? 1 Woman 2 Man 3 Both	
510 Currently does your household obtain agricultural extension advice? 1= Yes [] 2= No [] (skip to 513)	
511 [If Yes] From whom?	
512 How frequently?	
513 Currently can you yourself access any credit service for farming? 1= Yes [] 2= No [] (skip to 515)	
514 [If Yes] From where?	
515 Currently can any other member of your household access any credit service for farming? 1= Yes [] 2= No [] (skip to 517)	
516 Who? 1 Self 8 Sister 2 Husband 9 Daughter 3 Son 10 Other female relative 4 Father only 11 Father and mother 5 Brother 12 Friend (specify gender) 6 Other male relative 13 Other (specify gender) 7 Mother only	

517 Has there been any time when your household experienced food shortage?
 Yes No (skip to 522)

518 When?

519 How severe was the food shortage?

520 Why did your household experience food shortage(s)?

Possible reasons	Tick all mentioned
1 Bad weather/floods/hailstorm/drought	
2 Lack of labor	
3 Lack of seeds for planting	
4 Pests and diseases	
5 Ill health/death in the family	
6 Domestic problems	
7 High food prices	
8 War/destruction of homes	
9 Abandonment of fields	
10 Lack/loss of farm implements	
11 Insecurity/landmines/combats	
12 Stored food was looted	
13 Lack of access to markets	
14 Animals/poultry looted	
15 Other (specify)	

521 How did your household manage to secure food during this time? []

- | | |
|--|---------------------------------|
| 1 Collecting indigenous wild food plants | 8 Fishing |
| 2 Sale/Bartering livestock, livestock products | 9 Household stock |
| 3 Purchase | 10 Forced prostitution/marriage |
| 4 Cultivation | 11 Laboring for food |
| 5 Food aid | 12 Relocation of family/members |
| 6 Gifts of food from kin | 13 Other (specify) |
| 7 Armed forces | |

522 Would you say your household is producing to its maximum capacity, in terms of food?
 Yes (skip to 524) No

523 What is preventing your household from attaining maximum food production?

524 What are the most important measures that would improve your households' []
 access to adequate amounts of food at all times?

- | | |
|-------------------------------------|--|
| 1 Obtaining labor | 11 Rehabilitating our fields |
| 2 Irrigation | 12 Access to farm implements |
| 3 Better water management system | 13 Improvement in farming technology |
| 4 Better seeds for planting | 14 Control family expansion |
| 5 Enough seeds for planting | 15 Stopping the sale of foodstuffs |
| 6 Pests and disease control | 16 Reducing unproductivity of family members |
| 7 Improved health in family | 17 Restocking of livestock |
| 8 Getting free/cheap food | 18 Accessing market |
| 9 Ending the war/improving security | 19 Accessing credit |
| 10 Returning to our homes | 20 Other (specify) |

525 Please tell me all types of food (including drinks) consumed in your household over the last 24 hours by children and adults?

526 For each of the crops and animal products below, I would like you to tell me the following:

	In past 12 months did your household produce any? Yes = 1 No = 2	Did you use any improved variety of ? Yes = 1 No = 2	Did you produce for own consumption? Yes = 1 No = 2	Did you produce for sale? Yes = 1 No = 2	Did you have a surplus? Yes = 1 No = 2	What did you do with the surplus? 1=Sell to neighbor 2=Sell off farm to trader 3=Sell in village mkt 4=Sell off in payam market 5= Sell in county mkt 6= Wasted 7=Reserved/Stored 8=Sold across the border	Transport used 1 Head 2 Bicycle 3 Motorcycle 4 Pickup or Lorry 5 Animal 6 Sell on Farm 7 Other _____
Cassava							
Sweet Potato							
Banana							
Plantain							
Maize							
Millet							
Beans							
Groundnuts							
Onion							
Tomatoes							
Fruits							
Tea							
Coffee							
Tobacco							
Honey							
Fish							
Chicken							
Sheep							
Goats							
Cattle							
Milk							
Cheese							
Butter							
Sour milk							
Ghee							

527. ACTIVITIES OF RESPONDENT: Daily Activity Timeline: Please put an X in each cell against the appropriate activity mentioned by the respondent for the particular (approximate) time period. Each X represents up to 30 minutes.																							
ACTIVITY	total Xs	4 AM	5 AM	6 AM	7 AM	8 AM	9 AM	10 AM	11 AM	12 AM	1 PM	2 PM	3 PM	4 PM	5 PM	6 PM	7 PM	8 PM	9 PM	10 PM	11 PM	12 PM	
A: Personal care [bathing, dressing and eating]																							
B: Fetching water																							
C: Fetching firewood																							
D: Preparing (pounding, grinding, etc) into usable forms																							
E: Other domestic duties in the home [includes cooking, cleaning, washing clothes, running errands, etc]																							
F: Care for children, spouse, sick and elderly																							
G: Home construction, repair and maintenance																							
H: Trade Activities																							
I: Helping with subsistence production on family farm																							
J: Labor for food																							
K: Employment outside family [includes wage work such as washing clothes, running errands, fetching water, selling firewood, or looking for work]																							
L: In transit to and from work																							
M: In transit to and from food-related activities																							
N: Social and recreational activities [includes play, family gatherings, social discussions, cultural activities religious activities, parties, meetings, radio]																							
O: Rest/sleep [includes time spent sick]																							
total X's																							

Thank you for your time. I'd be glad to answer any questions you may have.